

SOCIAL EDUCATION



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Youth for Peace

Henry S. Reuss

A DOZEN recent conferences on our foreign aid program have agreed that we must discover ways of sharpening its impact abroad and obtaining better understanding at home. At the point of destination, so the criticism runs, our aid program relies too much upon military hardware, or upon grandiose steel-and-concrete projects that have little meaning to native peoples. Too often it is administered by the aloof, enclave-living, red-tape-bound types caricatured in *The Ugly American*. Too often our aid is short-stopped by corrupt or reactionary rulers before it "trickles down" to the people.

At the point of origin, much of the idealism which animated the Marshall Plan and the original Point Four concept has worn thin. As every Congressman knows, voters who once thrilled to the vision of West Europeans striving to restore their economies, of primitive peoples making the desert bloom, now ask embarrassing questions about Laos and Korea and Iraq.

This spring, the Kennedy Administration and the Eighty-seventh Congress will be overhauling the foreign aid program. In this overhaul, there will figure prominently the idea of using a corps of young Americans overseas to try to rekindle the flickering flame of idealism.

During the campaign last fall, candidate Kennedy asked "that some appropriate way be found to take advantage of the skills, the talents, the devotion, and the idealism which are inherent in America's young people; and to utilize the services of those properly trained, on the

new frontiers of humanity—to aid in building dams, teaching schools, operating hospitals, establishing irrigation projects, and generally to help other people to help themselves."

Within a few weeks Congress will receive the authoritative Colorado State University study of the proposal for a Point Four Youth Corps. For some months Colorado State has been making an on-the-spot study of the feasibility of the project in eight underdeveloped countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The study was authorized in an amendment to last year's Mutual Security Act, sponsored by the late Senator Richard L. Neuberger of Oregon and myself.

The idea of a Point Four Youth Corps first came to me on a Congressional mission to Southeast Asia in the fall of 1957. There I saw something that in a flash could cancel out, in its potential, many of the mistakes we had made. In the jungles of Cambodia, I saw a team of four young American school teachers who were going from village to village setting up the elementary schools that the French had neglected to provide in a hundred years of colonialism. The villagers and the young Americans loved each other, and I could only regret that there were four, rather than forty or four hundred, Americans working on the project.

A few months later, in a talk at Cornell University in Ithaca, New York, I suggested the idea of a "Point Four Selective Service for young Americans, neither busybodies nor misfits, with some degree of expertness, and a willingness to serve their country for a few years in far-off places, at a soldier's pay, in the greatest adventure of the age."

The response there—and wherever else I have discussed it—was electric. So I made it my business to discuss and refine the proposal, through meetings and conversations with government officials, religious and welfare leaders, and university teachers and administrators. By the end of 1959, the legislation calling for an official Congressional study was ready. The authorization for

Henry S. Reuss, Democratic Representative from Wisconsin, has traveled widely through the underdeveloped areas of the world. His was the first proposal for a Youth Peace Corps.

We acknowledge with thanks permission to reprint this article, which first appeared in the February 1961 issue of *The Progressive*, a journal founded in 1909 by Robert M. LaFollette, Sr. *The Progressive* is published in Madison, Wisconsin.

the study became law in June, 1960, and the appropriation was made in September, 1960. Meanwhile, in June, Senator Hubert Humphrey of Minnesota introduced a bill providing for the immediate establishment of a United States Peace Corps, setting forth the legal status of such a Corps in detail.

From these essentially similar proposals will, I hope, emerge legislation sufficient to bring the Corps into being before the end of 1961. The exact bill on which Congress will be asked to act will undoubtedly be hammered out within the next few weeks. And Congress can be relied on to make some modifications. But, based on the quick acceptance by Congress last year of the study, I am highly optimistic that the Corps, will be established by law.

A whole series of knotty questions needs to be resolved before the Corps can become a reality. At the end of 1960, I sponsored a meeting in Washington of representatives of more than sixty interested organizations—business, labor, religious, welfare, university. Here are the main questions we asked ourselves:

One—What is the Corps' purpose?

Four main purposes appear:

To add a human element to our programs of economic and social development.

To furnish a constructive outlet for the great reservoir of youthful idealism in this country.

To make available a much larger pool of United States overseas technicians.

To educate some of our young people both for eventual service overseas as a life work, and to lend their future home communities in America a sense of world understanding.

Two—What types of jobs should the Corps do?

Almost everything useful under the sun, the answer seems to be, but teaching comes first. Representative Barratt O'Hara of Illinois, chairman of the House Foreign Affairs Committee's African Subcommittee, reports that dozens of newly independent African states are desperately anxious for American technicians of all kinds, particularly teachers. Even before the beginnings of a formal program, many young Americans are teaching abroad on their own. Sam Bowles, son of Undersecretary of State Chester Bowles, just out of Yale, and his wife, are now having the time of their lives teaching in Nigeria, for example.

At a very simple level, there is a tremendous

demand for teachers of English. One of the happiest memories of my Army career was teaching "readin' and ritin'" to a group of Navajos and Cajuns at Camp Joseph T. Robinson, Arkansas, for several months in 1943. All I had for a text or a teacher's guide was an Army "poop-sheet," but the iridescent smiles of the Navajos and the joy of the Cajuns at establishing contact with home through the parish priest showed how easy it is to be a success at this.

Young Americans with some engineering training can help plan and build schools, clinics, irrigation projects, roads, and community centers. Home economists can demonstrate soap making, food handling, child care. Farmers can demonstrate crop and livestock improvement, irrigation, conservation. There is great need for people trained in medicine, nursing, and public administration.

Three—How big should the Corps be?

Here, there is a great variety of opinion. Some labor representatives talk about a vast foreign legion like a Civilian Conservation Corps, an army of 100,000 or so doing manual labor. But this approach overlooks the fact that unskilled labor is something of which most underdeveloped countries have a considerable surplus.

At the other extreme is the view presented to President Kennedy by Professor Max Millikan of Massachusetts Institute of Technology: "The program should be launched on a limited pilot basis with no more than a few hundred members," and the government content itself with coordinating the programs of non-governmental agencies. The trouble with such a program is that it is really no program at all. To have esprit de corps, you must first have a corps. A few hundred participants are now being furnished by such organizations as International Voluntary Services, which carries on excellent programs in agriculture and community development in such places as Viet Nam, Jordan, and Ghana; Operation Cross-Roads Africa, conducted by that remarkable Harlem minister, James H. Robinson, which brings 150 students a year to Africa; and the American Friends Service Committee, an old hand at person-to-person diplomacy. Agencies such as these are the first to say that their resources are wholly inadequate for the size of the task presented.

A program on the order of 1,000 to 2,000, consisting of both voluntary organizations and a government-sponsored component sounds to most observers like the most sensible way to begin. An

ultimate expansion to perhaps 10,000 could be envisaged.

Four—What should be the qualifications for membership in the Corps?

All are agreed that members should be "carefully selected." In practice, most members should have a college bachelor's degree or better. But there is no reason why a young farmer without a degree, for example, could not give invaluable service overseas. It would therefore seem wisest not to require a college degree.

Much more difficult will be the more subjective type of screening. The Corps certainly does not want members who are suspicious of foreigners. Equally, it seems to me, it does not want those who are so caught up with the rest of the world that they are out of touch with their own society.

Five—Should the Corps be public or private?

Here again, there are those who advocate that the Corps should depend entirely upon voluntary organizations, and those who advocate that it should be entirely governmental. The problem is too big for the voluntary organizations alone. Still, encouraging a pluralistic approach requires that the voluntary organizations be considered as part of the total American program. Perhaps the best solution would be to lodge the Corps, at least initially, in the agency which has been handling our technical assistance programs, the International Cooperation Administration. Top coordination could perhaps be handed to an undersecretary of state. The major nucleus of the Corps would be sponsored and financed directly by the government. Voluntary agencies would be able to expand their programs as they were given aid by the government, such as for overseas travel.

The Youth Corps idea should not be limited to United States participation. Recently, Karl Blessing, president of the West German Central Bank, urged a device for enabling German young people to work abroad in the underdeveloped areas, both for the good of their souls and as a recognition of Germany's favorable balance of payments position. Similar moves are afoot in the United Kingdom, Switzerland, and elsewhere. While the United States should not wait on others for launching its own program, joint activities with other contributing countries, and perhaps some day with the United Nations, are well worth exploring.

Six—Should Point Four Youth Corps members be draft exempt?

It is argued by some that service in the Youth Corps would be considerably more arduous in most cases than peacetime service in the armed forces—it probably would be—and therefore, the Youth Corps service should provide exemption from the draft. Total draft exemption, however, would run into domestic political opposition. In the last campaign, for example, Vice President Richard Nixon called the concept "a haven for draft dodgers." A more sensitive objection to the complete draft exemption idea was advanced by the Reverend James H. Robinson, of Operation Cross-Roads Africa, who pointed out that Youth Corps members might be suspect abroad if it were known that draft exemption was a possible motive for their signing up.

A sensible way of handling the problem has been worked out in practice by International Voluntary Services. While the young person is serving overseas, he is deferred from the draft just as is a university student. On his return from his three or four years' stint abroad, he more than likely will be twenty-five years old, or married, or otherwise beyond the reach of the draft. In practice, IVS reports that so far not one member has been drafted upon his return. Selective Service Director Lewis B. Hershey had indicated he would go along with this kind of approach to the Youth Corps.

Seven—How should Youth Corps members be trained?

Everyone seems agreed that a well-developed orientation course of at least six months is necessary, divided between this country and the general area where the member will work. The three areas of concentration would be a refresher course in American culture and government; studies of the culture of the underdeveloped area; and language training.

Eight—How much would the program cost?

It is envisaged that members sign up for at least three years. Pay and allowances should be comparable to those of a soldier, something like expenses, plus \$80 a month, which is the amount the rifle-toting counterpart of Youth Corps members would get in the Army. The annual cost for each member of the Corps, including transportation and living facilities, is estimated at around \$5,000. On that basis, it would cost \$10 million a year to send 2,000 young

(Concluded on page 192)

The OAS: Guardian of Peace or Pawn of Power Politics

Marvin D. Bernstein

AS WE STUDY inter-American relations, we are forced to recognize that United States hegemony in the Western Hemisphere is a persistent fact, a persistent reality, and the determinant of programs and proposals in this region. Only through the Organization of the American States can the Latin American republics partially counterbalance the power of the United States and force the United States to curtail to some extent its power of unilateral action in the Western Hemisphere. The position of the OAS in the conflict between Cuba and the United States well illustrates the problem: Is the OAS a guardian of peace in the Western Hemisphere or a pawn of United States power politics—a method of sweetening the United States hegemony in this half of the globe? Can the OAS evolve an effective Pan American policy for the Cuban problem as a substitute for unilateral action by the United States? The answer to this question is as yet in the future, but it will be determined in great part by what has gone before.

The OAS is a descendant of the Bureau of American States which was established in 1889 to deal only with hemispheric economic problems. Political matters were not to be considered apart from their effect upon economic relations. Not until after World War I were the Latin American states (operating through the Conferences of the American States) able to force the United States to reappraise its three basic unilateral political policies toward the hemisphere: (1) The Monroe Doctrine, which barred European territorial and ideological penetration of the New World without a parallel commitment of self-denial on the part of the United

States and inaugurated the still extant policy of hemispheric isolation which implies that the nations of the Americas would rely upon their own resources to settle their problems; (2) The Olney Interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine, which declared that since the United States was sovereign in the Western Hemisphere, its fiat upon any matter affecting the hemisphere was law; and (3) The Roosevelt Corollary which warned the Latin American states that they must act in a civilized manner by maintaining law and order and paying their international obligations upon pain of United States military intervention. In the Clark Memorandum of 1928 the United States State Department reinterpreted the Monroe Doctrine, stating that it comprised only President Monroe's warning to extra-hemispheric powers and that the addenda were made as acts of American foreign policy, not as derivations of the Doctrine. Hence, the Doctrine could remain, while the addenda were scrapped. Under President Hoover the withdrawal of Marines from the Caribbean area began. President Franklin D. Roosevelt fathered the Good Neighbor Policy and wrote into treaties assurances of non-intervention in the affairs of the Latin American states, thus derogating the Roosevelt Corollary.

After World War II, three developments in the Inter-American System gave it its present structure and place in United States foreign policy. They were (1) the signing of the Rio Reciprocal Assistance Pact; (2) establishing the Charter of the OAS at Bogotá; and (3) the Declaration of Caracas which committed the Inter-American System to oppose the extension of communism into the Western Hemisphere. With the onset of the cold war, the United States decided to strengthen hemispheric isolation by constructing a regional security system for the Western Hemisphere apart from the UN. As permitted under Article 51 of the UN Charter, the Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance was signed at Rio de Janeiro in 1947. This regional security pact pledged the members

Dr. Bernstein, Professor of History in the College of Education of the State University of New York at Fredonia, read this paper at the 40th Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, held in Boston last November.

of the Inter-American System to band together to defend the hemisphere against threats by extra-hemispheric powers, and it also pledged them to cooperate in defending a member of the Inter-American System against aggression by another member. An Inter-American Defense Board was set up with representatives from all the states of the Americas to meet in Washington and to prepare and coordinate plans for hemispheric defense. Military equipment was also to be supplied by the United States. As might have been predicted, the armed forces thus trained and equipped have become more important in the internal politics of Latin America than as bulwarks against external aggression. While it might appear that the Monroe Doctrine had been multi-lateralized by the Rio Pact, in reality, the United States had never renounced its right to act alone under the Doctrine as a matter of national security when it deems unilateral emergency action necessary. The United States, therefore, acts through and is bound by the machinery of the Inter-American System only when it wishes to use that channel in place of unilateral action. While the Roosevelt Corollary, justifying direct intervention, has been abridged by treaty commitments, the United States is still sovereign in the Western Hemisphere, as Mr. Olney proclaimed.

In 1948 at Bogotá, Colombia, the Charter of the Organization of American States was finalized after some three years of negotiations. Its primary objective is the maintenance of peace in the Western Hemisphere. But it has other objectives as well. For example, article 5, clause d, of the OAS Charter states:

The solidarity of the American States and the high aims which are sought through it require the political organization of those states on the basis of the effective exercise of representative democracy.

Unfortunately, the efforts of Brazil and Uruguay to have the Conference define democracy came to naught in the words of a State Department official: ". . . in view of the manifest technical difficulties. . ." The OAS is empowered to consider hemispheric problems of a political, juridical, and economic nature, promote economic and social development, and encourage cultural contacts and understanding. It has Organizations, Commissions, Bureaus, and Institutes attached to it to deal with the maintenance of peace, the functioning of Inter-American defense, drawing up international law, studying and making recommendations on economic problems, aiding

agriculture, improving health, investigating methods of ameliorating the lot of women, children, and Indians, collecting statistics of all sorts, and coordinating the study of the hemisphere's geography and history. The OAS is a multi-faceted regional organization with both political and non-political aims, thus differing from the regional organizations which have as their sole purpose either military or economic cooperation.

In 1954 at the Inter-American Conference held at Caracas, Venezuela, the OAS took a definite stand on the question of communism. Under the blunt prodding of Secretary of State John Foster Dulles who was concerned about the dalliance of the leftist government of Guatemala with communism (which he compared with the danger President Monroe faced in 1823), the Conference passed the following Declaration:

That the domination or control of the political institutions of any American state by the international Communist movement, extending to this hemisphere the political system of an extra-continental power would constitute a threat to the sovereignty and political independence of the American states, endangering the peace of America, and would call for a meeting of consultation to consider the adoption of appropriate action in accordance with existing treaties.

The Declaration was passed with Guatemala voting against it and Mexico and Argentina abstaining. It should be noted that the Declaration called for "a meeting of consultation"; the OAS did not delegate the power of judgment and action in its name. Ultimately the Guatemalan problem was solved through extra-OAS channels. A United States-supported revolution and an invasion from Nicaragua and Honduras soon toppled the leftist government. Communism was defeated in Guatemala by the CIA, not the OAS. Significantly, among the supporters of the defeated government who fled into exile was an Argentine doctor, Ernesto "Ché" Guevara, who has since become Fidel Castro's closest advisor. To the present day the OAS has not set up hemispheric machinery to cope with the problem of Communist infiltration and subversion.

What is the attitude of the Latin American states toward the United States? What is the reality of the relations between the United States and Latin American states? And what is the role of the OAS in these relations? A Venezuelan, Mariano Picón-Salas, has described hemispheric relations rather pointedly as "an alliance of the elephant with the ants." About equal in population to all the Latin American states, the

United States has a national income about eight times as large and an industrial and military might yet greater. The United States is the arbiter of both power politics and economic development in the hemisphere. Despite renunciations by the United States of the right of political intervention, the Latin American states have continued to regard the United States with suspicion, and darkly hint that economic aggression is just as potent a weapon as political intervention. A bitter heritage exists between these two components of Pan America. It is a heritage characterized by United States unilateralism in international dealings and a memory of annexations and political intervention, a fear of future intervention in the form of economic aggression, and a remembrance of vacillating recognition policies designed to force the morality of the United States upon Latin American nations at times and a placid acceptance of brutal dictatorships at other times. The United States has repeatedly dealt with Latin America on a direct nation-to-nation basis, while it is only through the OAS that the Latin American nations can make use of their numbers to give the United States pause. Hence, the Inter-American System is trapped by the truth of the Olney interpretation: because of its position and resources the United States is sovereign in the Western Hemisphere. United States hegemony is the reality.

The attitude of the United States toward the OAS is of equal importance. Too often, to Washington, the OAS has been only an instrument of United States foreign policy, not a regional organization to aid the Americas to rise above the narrowing confines of nationalism. The State Department has treated the OAS as only an alternate channel for United States policy. When Washington does not wish to use either direct nation-to-nation contacts or the multilateralism of the UN, it then turns to the OAS. In the matter of Cuban relations the United States has pursued a vacillating policy of direct relations and multilateralism through the OAS while preventing the UN from considering the Cuban issue. The OAS has not been able to develop the consciousness necessary for true regionalism.

Let us now examine economic relations among the American states. Since the end of World War II, Latin America has continually called for positive programs of economic and social advancement. While the United States still tends toward the ideal of *laissez faire* in international economic affairs, the Latin American states are

dropping classical liberalism for a philosophy stressing state enterprise and centralized planning. Within the OAS, the Inter-American Economic and Social Council has one of the poorest records of accomplishment because of this clash of ideologies. Over the opposition of the United States, Latin America secured the organization of an Economic Commission for Latin America in the UN to parallel the Economic and Social Council. The United States repeatedly turned down requests for an Inter-American Development Bank and finances for a regional development plan (sometimes called a Marshall Plan for Latin America), insisting that borrowing be carried out by direct negotiations with the Export-Import Bank or the World Bank. President Eisenhower's visit in February, 1960, was marked by the lack of any concrete plan beyond the generalized advocacy of disarmament and cooperation. At a time of great shortage of capital for international investment, the United States looked with disfavor upon Latin American requests for government-to-government loans and favored concessions to private investors to stimulate interest in Latin American projects. The Nixon riots, the harsh comments made to Dr. Milton Eisenhower, and even the warning of Castro's social revolution brought no essential change in United States policy. Then Khrushchev rattled rockets to support Castro. A consultation of Foreign Ministers was called to meet at San José, Costa Rica, in August, 1960. The United States discovered that its demand for an outright condemnation of Cuba as a Communist satellite met a cool reception. Despite throwing an old pet, Rafael Trujillo of the Dominican Republic to the wolves and offering a United States-financed regional economic development plan in addition to the previously announced Inter-American Development Bank, all Secretary Herter could obtain was a restatement of the Caracas Declaration of 1954 condemning Communist infiltration. The meeting refused to condemn Cuba by name. At the Bogotá conference on economic aid which followed in September, the United States pledged a half billion dollars, with more to come, to finance programs of agrarian reform, economic development, and social readjustment in order to forestall other Castro-type social revolutions. The United States has continued unilateral action against Cuba. The moral is clear. Castro was the necessary catalyst. Latin America is willing to accept hemispheric isolation, which has been United States policy from the days of the Monroe Doctrine to

the Good Neighbor Policy, but through the OAS, Latin America can exert enough pressure upon the United States to secure a quid pro quo: economic aid. As a group the Latin American nations did not give way to United States demands for a specific condemnation of Cuba—and then they took United States economic assistance.

Before proceeding to an evaluation of the achievements of the OAS, it must be noted that the policies and actions of the OAS are determined not only by relations between the United States and the Latin American members, but also by relations among the Latin Americans themselves. These countries range from modern nations to primitive states, from well-functioning democracies to well-functioning totalitarianisms. Hence, poor compromises and vague recommendations may at times be the only possibilities. In judging the OAS we must remember that it has continually been in evolution and with the passage of time it will become stronger, more effective, and capable of performing many more tasks.

I believe that in the promotion of democratic government in the Americas the OAS has failed. It has been unable to define the term "democratic government," and, in addition, it has adopted a recognition policy based upon the acceptance of de facto governments regardless of their political orientation. Left-wing governments, such as Cuba's, and reactionary military regimes have gained alike, while democratic governments have not been specifically encouraged. A first step in the promotion of democracy was taken during the Foreign Ministers' meeting held at Santiago, Chile, in the summer of 1959, to consider unrest in the Caribbean. The declaration was made that American States should work to establish free elections and a free press to reduce the influence of dictatorships and the possibility of war in the Caribbean. Noteworthy as this declaration may be, it has had no effect upon the Caribbean nations at which it was aimed: Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, and Guatemala.

As for the other side of the coin—the containment of communism—the OAS record is equally lamentable. While on record as opposing the extension of communism into the Americas, the United States, not the OAS, toppled Guatemala's leftist government, and steps to halt the drifting of Cuba toward the Russian orbit have been carried out unilaterally by the United States.

The case of Trujillo in the Dominican Repub-

lic comes to mind when we consider the OAS position with regard to Fascist regimes. Rather elaborate sanctions were voted against the Dominican Republic at the San José meeting last August, although the imposition of such sanctions was left to the discretion of the individual members of the OAS. Unfortunately, Trujillo was condemned because of his enemies, not because of his principles. Paraguay still suffers under Stroessner, and Nicaragua under the Samoza brothers.

Failures are counterbalanced in part by a number of limited, but growing, successes. Because of the poverty of many Latin American states, the OAS struggles constantly against a shortage of funds. Therefore, programs for bettering social conditions and improving cultural relations have progressed at a slow pace. The Pan-American Health Organization, affiliated with the World Health Organization, has made notable progress in the eradication of malaria through Latin America and the study of tropical diseases. Numerous congresses have been held to study the problems of child labor, the position of women and the Indian, and to propose remedial legislation. A real cultural exchange program is just beginning. The stipends offered are small and so are the number of people involved, but as the funds available increase, so will the programs for the exchange of persons and the exchange of information concerning the cultures of the various republics of the Americas. As any subscriber to publications of the Pan American Union can testify, their quality has improved immensely in the past few years.

Plans for economic improvement among the American states have been increasing steadily, but not through OAS channels, because of the impotence of the Economic and Social Council. The role of the OAS here has been an informal one. The Central American nations, for example, have negotiated an economic union which includes tariff reductions and a plan for the promotion of light industry. Plans have also been drawn up for customs unions for southern South America, but they are extremely limited. Another hopeful sign is the coffee marketing agreement which sets quotas for Latin American and African coffee in order to support the price. We cannot yet evaluate the economic aid to be extended through the new Inter-American Development Bank and the economic program set up

(Concluded on page 204)

Helping the Less-Able Reader

Robert V. Duffey

A QUESTION being raised increasingly often by teachers at all levels is, "What can I do to help my pupils who cannot read our social studies textbook?" This paper is directed to some suggested answers to this question. A limitation which the writer has placed upon the answers is that they must include reading; that is, they must not consist on non-reading activities.

Two basic assumptions would seem to be worth mentioning. First, social studies should not be considered a mere handmaiden to reading. "It would be quite possible," Chase has said, "to reach a high level of competence in social studies through a non-reading, non-writing curriculum."¹ Chase does not recommend such an approach; he merely makes the point to highlight the other possible extreme of complete dependence upon text-centered instruction. Actually, success in reading and success in social studies achievement tend to go hand in hand: reading helps the pupil in social studies, and what he learns in social studies helps him to read better.² Our concern with reading in this present instance is its use as a means to an end in social studies.

Second, the raising of the question is an encouraging sign that many teachers are increasingly concerned with individual differences in achievement. In his "House Divided Against Itself" speech Lincoln said, "If we could first know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what we do and how to do it." It would appear that many teachers have come to the place of "how to do it."

"Vagueness," Bernard de Voto said, "should not be invoked when a precise answer is possible"; but pat answers to educational questions are usually not readily found. The suggested answers to our particular problem are not advertised herewith as anything beyond possible an-

swers, helps to be used with professional discretion.

Textbooks at lower levels of readability. This most obvious suggestion is not so easy as it may sound. For one thing, content coverage varies from level to level. Further, treatment of the same content differs from author to author, albeit for good reasons, compounding the instructional task. Students in the upper grades tend to shun texts designated for lower grades. Authorities disagree on the advisability of using multiple texts at the elementary level.³

The suggestion is made, nevertheless, in the knowledge that it will prove workable in some instances. Its use will be greater where the possibilities of its use are better known. A master inventory of the contents—titles of chapters, stories, poems, and pictures—of all the books in a school, with grade levels indicated and arranged according to unit topics or broad topical headings (for example, "Westward Movement," "Mexican Life," "George Washington") is an excellent stimulant. Compiling and maintaining such an inventory and doing the necessary librarian work are the kinds of service projects with which gifted pupils may be entrusted.

A splendid general reference on this subject is Mary C. Wilson's pamphlet, "How to Use Multiple Books."⁴

Trade books, or children's literature. The reason for inclusion of this suggestion is best explained by Alvina Treut Burrows:

¹ W. Linwood Chase. "Individual Differences in Classroom Learning" in National Society for the Study of Education. *Social Studies in the Elementary School*. Fiftieth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1957. p. 175.

² Ralph C. Preston. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary Schools*. Revised Edition. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1958. p. 251, 252.

³ Alvina Treut Burrows. "Reading, Research, and Reporting in the Social Studies." *Social Studies in the Elementary School*. *op. cit.*, p. 196, 197. Also Ralph C. Preston, *op. cit.*, p. 263.

⁴ Mary C. Wilson. *How to Use Multiple Books. How To Do It Series*, No. 16. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1954. 25 cents.

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Never before—and this is no idle superlative—has there been such a wealth of literature for children and teachers to choose from in books related to social studies. Each year since the midcentury, publishers and authors have produced approximately a thousand new titles and a respectable list of reprints. In almost every social studies area children's literature offers some of its riches.⁵

In brief, pertinent juvenile literature is available as never before. It has always been coveted in social studies because it provides the depth and detail which textbooks cannot provide.

A service of great merit is rendered to teachers at all levels in their efforts to keep abreast of this avalanche of material by the *Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books*.⁶ This publication critically reviews current juvenile books, pointing out each volume's relative importance, its strengths and weaknesses, its general content, its specific usefulness, and its reading level. Valuable information is also available from publishing houses, school and public librarians, and the curriculum offices of large city school systems.

A matter of great importance in winning over the less able reader to the reading of a whole book is the size of the book. He must be able to see the end of the job from the time he starts. The teacher must constantly be on the prowl for shorter presentations.⁷

Junior news publications. These newspapers and news magazines⁸ provide tremendous

coverage. Just how true this statement is can be learned best by anyone who will take the time and trouble to clip the articles (at least two copies of each issue will be needed) of a year's subscription and file them under appropriate headings. Doing this faithfully for all the issues of all the papers at the different grade levels will result in a veritable library. Because the publishers treat the same subject sometimes on different levels, and often follow up a topic in subsequent issues, a file of clipped articles can soon become a rich repository of information on a surprising array of topics.

Special features, supplements, and tests add appeal for students. Excellent background material and suggestions for teachers can often work together to help keep the presentations informal.

Material re-written by the teacher. There is evidence to the effect that simplification of vocabulary and other structural elements aids achievement of meaning; however, this procedure has limitations.⁹ Anyone using this technique must bear in mind the danger of mistaking an "easier" (shorter, less complex, more common) word or expression for an easier meaning. Seegers put it this way:

A word is difficult or easy to a child not in proportion to the incidence of its general use, but according to the amount and type of association the child has had with the concept for which the word stands. Words are not difficult. Ideas are.¹⁰

In other words, an explanation of the principle of "No taxation without representation" re-written in words of one syllable cannot be expected to replace the necessity of understanding the basic elements of the situation.

Social studies teachers, along with their colleagues who teach literature and with librarians and with well-intentioned but ill-informed writers in popular magazines, sometimes raise another objection. They say—and entirely correctly—that a teacher's re-written version of any classic—a letter or a speech by Lincoln, for instance—loses its original quality. (We could mention that our school editions of Shakespeare are not pure Shakespeare: certain earthy Elizabethan expressions are carefully expurgated.) We admit that this is so; we regret the loss; but we are

mediate grades and upward); *Scholastic Magazines*, 33 West 42nd St., New York 36 (intermediate grades and upward).

⁵ Ernest Horn. "Language and Meaning" in The National Society for the Study of Education. *The Psychology of Learning*. Forty-first Yearbook, Part II. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1942. p. 399.

⁶ J. Conrad Seegers. "Recent Research in Vocabulary." *Elementary English* 23:67; February 1946.

⁵ *Op. cit.*, p. 201.

⁶ University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

⁷ For example: *American Heroes Series*, by Beals and Ballard. Harr Wagner Publishing Company, 609 Mission St., San Francisco, California. Five 40-page booklets, each describing in narrative form the lives and deeds of four heroes in American history: "Discoverers of America," "Real Adventure With the Pilgrim Settlers," "American Patriots," "American Pathfinders," and "American Plainsmen." Reading level, 5. 64 cents.

Chronicles of Americans. Americana Press, 2038 Pennsylvania Ave., Madison 10, Wisconsin. Twelve colorful booklets: "The American Realm," "The Supreme Court," "Early Rails," "The Civil War at a Glance," "What 'Corporation' Means," "The American School," "The Great Westward Trek," "Great Presidents," "Ouiscconsin," "Documents of Freedom," "America's Success Story," and "Early American Recipes." Reading level, 7+. 18 cents.

Fathers of Industry Series. Mercer Publishing Company, 16 East 52nd St., New York 22. Twenty-three booklets, each treating an inventor or captain of industry. Reading level, 7+. 20 cents.

Little Wonder Books. Charles E. Merrill, Inc., 1300 Alum Creek Drive, Columbus 16, Ohio. Sixty booklets. Reading levels, 1 through 6. 21 cents.

⁸ Among the best known and most widely accepted of the classroom periodicals are the offerings of: American Education Publications, 1250 Fairwood Ave., Columbus 16, Ohio (issues at all levels, K-12); Civic Education Service, Inc., 1733 K. Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. (inter-

willing to pay this price in order to enable perhaps another one-fourth of our pupils to get the basic ideas *through reading*. An important part of this fourth suggestion is that all the pupils should hear the original so as to appreciate something of its classical beauty.

To supplement the teacher's judgment on suitability of vocabulary, there are the usual lists of "new" words in the back of basal readers and the normative listings like Rinsland's.¹¹ To help him devise interesting formats there are works like Dunfee's and Merritt's.¹²

Material re-written by other pupils. The "other pupils" are those who can and do read the text and are able, in addition, to summarize in their own words their understanding of what they read. This writing, edited by the teacher only as absolutely necessary, often communicates very nicely to less able readers the gist of the text. The more child-like the re-writing remains, the better. Reading is facilitated when the reader's re-thinking of the author's thoughts is made easier.

Experience charts. Taking this last-mentioned thought to its logical conclusion leads to the writing of experience records or charts. This technique, widely used in the primary grades, has great applicability all the way up the line. It consists very simply of the pupils dictating to the teacher material that they have learned—from an excursion, a film-strip, a television program, a resource visitor, etc.—and the teacher writing it down, usually on the blackboard. After editing, it is put into permanent form on chart paper and perhaps also on mimeograph. If the products of these last three suggestions—re-writing by teacher and by pupils, and experience record—are collected, along with illustrations and comprehension checks, notebook style, each pupil will have a book of his own that he can read and understand.

The time element in this suggestion is a matter of much concern, for the content, unlike that of any of the other proposals, must be obtained in

¹¹ Henry D. Rinsland. *A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1945.

¹² Maxine M. Dunfee. "An Evaluation of Social Studies Source Materials by Fifth and Sixth Grade Children." Doctoral Dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington, 1949. See also by the same author, "The Stamp of Reality." *NEA Journal* 41:227; April 1952.

James W. Merritt. "A Study of Sixth Graders' Comprehension of Specially Prepared Materials on Broad Social Conflicts." Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1951. See also, "Children Can Understand Social Conflicts." *Educational Leadership* 10: 298; February 1953.

school from the pupils. One possibility is that of using members of the "Future Teachers of America" club in the local high school to take the original dictation.

When teachers make a point of re-writing just one passage a month, of guiding the better readers to summarize in writing some material each month, they are much gratified with the results in quantity of material and improvement of achievement.

Study guides. Developed by Chase at Boston University, this technique consists of series of questions matching the text paragraphs, with answers provided on the right-hand side of the paper so that they may be folded back out of sight until checking time. With each slower reader, or perhaps with two, is an achieving reader to help as a pupil-teacher. Variations on the number, kind, length, and specificity of the questions are possible, as are also the methods of using them.¹³

Pupil specialties. "Specialties" is another term for special assignments. The idea is to guide students into special assignments and to encourage them to become "experts" on these specific topics so that they will be resource persons in the classroom.¹⁴ These specialties may be short-term (for example, an election, a trip by the President, a biography). Or they may be continuing projects (keeping a scrapbook of Queen Elizabeth, collecting stamps on a specific person, place, or event, being a radio "ham"). This technique influences reading in terms of motivation. Children sometimes read remarkably better, and more, when they are enthusiastic about the reason for it. A child's specialty can vest him with new importance. It can assure him an audience. He will know more about his topic than anyone else in his class. His peers will acknowledge his report as a genuine contribution.

The last word in educational method has not yet been written. Teachers worth their salt are always looking for new and better ways to teach. Usually the new and better has its base in something old and good. Any of the foregoing eight suggestions will be an improvement only as its classroom use is based on the fundamentally sound procedure for directing reading activities in all curricular areas with pupils at all levels of achievement.

¹³ W. Linwood Chase, *op. cit.*, p. 179-180.

¹⁴ Donald D. Durrell and Leonard J. Savignano. "Classroom Enrichment Through Pupil Specialties." *Journal of Education* 137:1; February 1956.

Recent Supreme Court Decisions: Double Jeopardy

Isidore Starr

THREE is a classic tale of double jeopardy which involves a Mr. Smith, who is accused of murdering his wife. Although he denies it throughout his trial, claiming that the body is not that of his wife, the prosecution is able to prove him guilty beyond a reasonable doubt. Convicted of homicide, he is sentenced and, after serving a long time, is paroled for good behavior. Upon his release he buys a gun, finds his wife, and kills her. Can he be tried again for killing his wife?

Like all classic tales designed to make a pertinent point, the story of Mr. Smith has many loopholes. It does serve, however, a useful purpose in motivating a discussion of double jeopardy.

HISTORY OF DOCTRINE

In man's quest for the nature and meaning of justice, few principles have had such widespread acceptance as the one which immunizes a person against double trials for the same offense. Greek and Roman law had phrases for it; canon law approved it, for "not even God judges twice for the same act"; and by the thirteenth century, it had become "a universal maxim of the common law."¹

It was inevitable that the Englishmen who settled our shores would incorporate this principle in their legal structure. One of the earliest, if not the earliest, recognitions of this right appears in the Body of Liberties of Massachusetts Bay (1641) in these words: "No man shall be twise sentenced by Civill Justice for one and the same Crime, Offence, or Trespass."²

Dr. Starr, who teaches social studies at Brooklyn (New York) Technical High School, has served on the NCSS Board of Directors and on both the Advisory Board and the Executive Board of *Social Education*. During the past ten years, he has written a number of articles summarizing recent Supreme Court decisions for this journal.

With the ratification of our Bill of Rights, the double jeopardy provision of the Fifth Amendment became the law of the land, providing: "... nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb." All states recognize this immunity either in their constitutions or in their common law.

JUDICIAL INTERPRETATIONS

Our judiciary has evolved many variations on this ostensibly simple and majestic major theme. For example, under federal law a verdict of acquittal in a criminal case cannot be appealed by the prosecution. State laws, however, differ on this procedure. There is general agreement that a defendant may appeal a conviction and, if he wins a second trial, this is obviously not regarded as double jeopardy. In 1922 the Supreme Court was asked to decide whether it was double jeopardy for both the federal and a state government to try a person for the same offense. The accused, having sold a case of bootleg whiskey, had been convicted under both the federal Volstead Act and the state liquor law of Washington. The ruling in *United States v. Lanza* was that double jeopardy did not protect an accused against being tried in two different jurisdictions for the same offense.

On the other hand, is it possible under certain circumstances for a person to be tried for the same crime more than once in the same jurisdiction? In one case an accused was convicted of two separate crimes—drunkenness and publicly insulting a police officer—although both actions occurred simultaneously. Two different ordinances were invoked to cover the same general offense. In conscientious objector cases, it has not been unusual to prosecute nonreligious conscientious objectors a second time on the ground that each

¹ The dissenting opinion of Justice Black in the *Bartkus* case summarizes briefly the history of double jeopardy.

² Richard Morris. *Basic Documents of American History*. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1956. p. 116.

refusal to serve in the armed services is a separate crime.³

THE *Bartkus Case*

Let us now consider the three most recent cases involving this doctrine. In the first, *Bartkus* was tried in a federal court for the robbery of a federally-insured savings bank and loan association. Less than three weeks after his acquittal, he was indicted, tried, and convicted of the same crime in an Illinois state court. In this trial federal agents turned over to the state authorities all the evidence they had gathered, including some new evidence obtained after the acquittal. *Bartkus* was sentenced to life imprisonment.

The defendant appealed on two grounds. He argued that the second trial was double jeopardy; that the Illinois authorities were acting merely as tools of the federal government; and that this state trial was a sham and a cover for a second trial which the Fifth Amendment proscribes. The second line of defense rested on the Due Process of Law Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment which was designed to protect persons from the type of harassment to which the accused had been subjected.

The case of *Bartkus v. Illinois*, 359 U.S. 121 (1959), was decided in a 5 to 4 ruling. Justice Frankfurter, speaking for the majority, based his conclusions on "precedent, experience, and reason." In a scholarly and painstakingly researched analysis of the problems raised, he concluded that a state conviction after a federal acquittal does not violate the Double Jeopardy Clause of the Fifth Amendment. He finds no merit in the contention that the trial in the state court was really an indirect way of having the federal government try the accused a second time. This was a trial on a state robbery statute which Illinois had the right to initiate. The use by state officials of evidence gathered by federal officials is not unusual. As a matter of fact, cooperation between the two is desirable in apprehending criminals.

Ours is a federal system, the Justice reminds us, and each government—federal and state—has the right to pursue its practices of law enforcement. If we did not permit double prosecutions in cases of this nature, a criminal might so arrange it that he would be tried by a jurisdiction where the penalties were relatively minor.

³Robert E. Cushman. *Civil Liberties in the United States*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1956. p. 98-99.

The Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment does not help the defendant either, concludes Justice Frankfurter. In the first place, this Amendment is not a "short-hand incorporation of the first eight amendments making them applicable as explicit restrictions upon the states." In other words, the Double Jeopardy Clause of the Fifth Amendment does not bind the states. Nor does the general concept of due process of law help him. Justice Frankfurter admits that due process is "a flexible concept, responsive to thought and experience—experience which is reflected in a solid body of judicial opinion." It does prohibit to the states those practices which are "repugnant to the consciences of mankind." It may be, Justice Frankfurter concedes, that at some point the cruelty of multiple prosecutions might offend due process of law. But such is certainly not the case here. And then, with a bow in the direction of his colleagues, Frankfurter declares:

Decisions under the Due Process Clause require close and perceptive inquiry into fundamental principles of our society. The Anglo-American system of law is based not upon transcendental revelation but upon the conscience of society ascertained as best it may be by a tribunal disciplined for the task and environed by the best safeguards for disinterestedness and detachment.

THE DISSENTS

Accepting this accolade, four of his colleagues, bristling with annoyance and exasperation, produced two dissenting opinions. The first, written by Justice Black and joined in by the Chief Justice and Justice Douglas, condemns the majority for its weakening of the constitutional guarantee against double jeopardy. This, exclaims Justice Black, is the first time in its history that the Court has upheld the state conviction of one who had been acquitted in the federal courts of the same crime. In broad, sweeping strokes, he criticizes double prosecutions for the same offense as "contrary to the spirit of our free country."

For, after today, who will be able to blame a conscientious prosecutor for failing to accept a jury verdict of acquittal when he believes a defendant guilty and knows that a second try is available in another jurisdiction and that such a second try is approved by the Highest Court in the Land? Inevitably, the victims of such double prosecutions will most often be the poor and the weak in our society, individuals without friends in high places who can influence prosecutors not to try them again. The power to try a second time will be used, as have all similar procedures, to make scapegoats of helpless, political, religious, or racial minorities and those who differ, who do not conform and who resist tyranny.

As for the position taken by the majority that

federalism justifies double prosecutions, Black replies:

Our Federal Union was conceived and created "to establish Justice" and to "secure the Blessings of Liberty," not to destroy any of the bulwarks on which both freedom and justice depend. We should, therefore, be suspicious of any supposed "requirements" of "federalism" which result in obliterating ancient safeguards. I have seen nothing in the history of our Union, in the writings of its Founders, or elsewhere, to indicate that individual rights deemed essential by both State and Nation were to be lost through the combined operations of the two governments. Nor has the Court given any sound reason for thinking that the successful operation of our dual system of government depends in the slightest on the power to try people twice for the same act.

Justice Brennan's dissenting opinion, concurred in by Chief Justice Warren and Justice Douglas, concludes that the state trial of Bartkus was in reality "a second federal try . . . in the guise of a state prosecution." It was the federal agent who had acquired and turned over to the state the additional evidence that led to the conviction. Two of Bartkus' alleged accomplices, who had been convicted in the first trial, had not been sentenced by the federal courts up to the time they had testified against the defendant in the state court.

On the basis of these circumstances, Justice Brennan concluded that the defendant should be freed. He went on to say:

To set aside this state conviction because infected with constitutional violations by federal officers implies no condemnation of the state processes as such. The conviction is set aside not because of any infirmities resulting from fault of the State but because it is the product of unconstitutional federal action. I cannot grasp the merit of an argument that protection against federal oppression in the circumstances shown by this record would do violence to the principles of federalism. Of course, co-operation between federal and state authorities in criminal law enforcement is to be desired and encouraged, for cooperative federalism in this field can indeed profit the Nation and the States in improving methods for carrying out the endless fight against crime. But the normal and healthy situation consists of state and federal officers cooperating to apprehend lawbreakers and present the strongest case against them at a single trial, be it state or federal. Cooperation in order to permit the Federal Government to harass the accused so as to deny him his protection under the Fifth Amendment is not to be tolerated as a legitimate requirement of federalism. The lesson of the history which wrought the Fifth Amendment's protection has taught us little if that shield may be shattered by reliance upon the requirements of federalism and state sovereignty to sustain this transparent attempt of the Federal Government to have two tries at convicting Bartkus for the same alleged crime. What happened here was simply that the federal effort which failed in the federal courthouse was renewed a second time in the state court-

house across the street. Not content with the federal jury's resolution of conflicting testimony in Bartkus' favor, the federal officers engineered this second prosecution and on the second try obtained the desired conviction. It is exactly this kind of successive prosecution by federal officers that the Fifth Amendment was intended to prohibit.

THE *Abbate* CASE

By a strange coincidence, one week after the aforementioned ruling, our High Court handed down a decision in a case which involved once again the state of Illinois. This time, however, the defendants had been found guilty in the state court and now the federal government had instituted criminal action against those who had already been sentenced. Illinois had tried the defendants for conspiring to destroy the property of the Southern Bell Telephone and Telegraph Company; the federal indictment for the same actions was based on a law which forbade conspiracies to injure or destroy communications facilities "operated or controlled by the United States." The facilities which the defendants had conspired to destroy had been assigned to the exclusive use of the Strategic Air Command, the Civil Aeronautics Administration, the Navy, and other federal agencies.

Justice Brennan, speaking for the majority in *Abbate v. United States*, 359 U.S. 187 (1959), declared that there was sufficient precedent to uphold the two trials in this type of proceeding. He saw no reason for overruling the *Lanza* case which held that prior state convictions did not bar federal prosecutions for the same offense. To justify his position he quoted the words of former Chief Justice Taft who, in speaking for a unanimous Court, had said:

We have here two sovereignties, deriving power from different sources, capable of dealing with the same subject-matter within the same territory. . . . Each government in determining what shall be an offense against its peace and dignity is exercising its own sovereignty, not that of the other.

It follows that an act denounced as a crime by both national and state sovereignties is an offense against the peace and dignity of both and may be punished by each. The Fifth Amendment, like all the other guaranties in the first eight amendments, applies only to proceedings by the Federal Government, . . . and the double jeopardy therein forbidden is a second prosecution under authority of the Federal Government after a first trial for the same offense under the same authority.

And then, Justice Brennan did a most unusual thing. Having written the Court's opinion, he proceeded to write a second opinion—one in which he spoke only for himself. Obviously dis-

turbed by the government's line of argument, he wanted to put a stop to any implications which might arise from it. The position advanced by the federal attorneys was that a person can be tried twice for the same general offense in the same jurisdiction provided that he had violated two separate laws or statutes. Justice Brennan clearly stated his position on this matter in the following words:

The basis of the Fifth Amendment protection against double jeopardy is that a person shall not be harassed by successive trials; that an accused shall not have to marshal the resources and energies necessary for his defense more than once for the same alleged criminal acts. "The underlying idea . . . is that the State with all its resources and power should not be allowed to make repeated attempts to convict an individual for an alleged offense, thereby subjecting him to embarrassment, expense and ordeal and compelling him to live in a continuing state of anxiety and insecurity. . . ." *Green v. United States*, 355 U.S. 184, 187. In short, "The prohibition is not against being twice punished, but against twice put in jeopardy. . . ."

Repetitive harassment in such a manner goes to the heart of the Fifth Amendment protection. This protection cannot be thwarted either by the "same evidence" test or because the conduct offends different federal statutes protecting different federal interests. The prime consideration is the protection of the accused from the harassment of successive prosecutions, and not the justification for or policy behind the statutes violated by the accused. If the same acts violate different federal statutes protecting separate federal interests those interests can be adequately protected at a single trial by the imposition of separate sentences for each statute violated.

Once again Chief Justice Warren and Justices Black and Douglas dissented. Black's opinion declares bluntly:

. . . The legal logic used to prove one thing to be two is too subtle for me to grasp. . . . I believe the Bill of Rights' safeguard against double jeopardy was intended to establish a broad national policy against federal courts trying or punishing a man a second time after acquittal or conviction in any court. It is just as much an affront to human dignity and just as dangerous to human freedom for a man to be punished twice for the same offense, once by a State and once by the United States, as it would be for one of these two Governments to throw him in prison twice for the offense. Perhaps a belief that this is true was responsible for the fact that a proposed amendment to the Double Jeopardy Clause was rejected in our First Congress while the Bill of Rights was being considered. If that amendment had been adopted the Clause apparently would have barred double prosecution for "the same offense" only if brought under "any law of the United States." I Annals of Cong., 753 (1789).^{*} I fear that this limitation on the scope of the Double Jeopardy Clause, which Congress refused to accept, is about to be firmly established as the constitutional rule by the Court's holding in this case and in *Bartkus v. Illinois*.

* Footnote 6 in Black's dissent reads as follows: "At the time the amendment was offered the Double Jeopardy Clause under discussion read: 'No person shall be subject,

THE MOST RECENT CASE

This most recent case, *Forman v. United States*, 361 U.S. 416 (1960), involved a criminal conspiracy to evade the payment of individual income taxes from 1942 to 1953. The defendant claimed that the conspiracy had ended in 1946 when he had filed his 1945 return and that the six-year period of the statute of limitations barred prosecution of the case. At the trial the defendant requested the judge to give certain instructions to the jury, which he did. The jury, nevertheless, found him guilty, and he thereupon appealed on the ground that the very instructions which he had requested were erroneous and that he should be freed.

The Court of Appeals agreed with the defendant and ordered an acquittal. The government immediately appealed and was granted a re-hearing. This time the Court agreed with the government, vacated the acquittal, and ordered a new trial. The defendant shouted that he was being tried twice for the same offense.

A unanimous ruling by the Supreme Court found no merit in the double jeopardy defense here. Justice Clark's opinion reminded the defendant that when he opened the case by appealing from the conviction, he subjected himself to the power of the appellate court to direct such "appropriate" order as it thought "just under the circumstances." Justice Harlan and Justice Whittaker submitted brief concurring opinions.

CONCLUSION

Criminals seldom arouse our sympathy and most of us would like to see our law-enforcement authorities vested with all the legal weapons available in their conflict with the lawless. But we do have "a sense of injustice" which rebels against violations of our fundamental principles of liberty and fair play.

In a democracy where judicial review is free to evolve its precedents, we shall continue to see variations on the double jeopardy theme. As things stand today, immunity against double jeopardy means only that, with very few exceptions, a person cannot be tried twice for the same crime by the same government.

except in cases of impeachment, to more than one punishment or one trial for the same offence.' I Annals of Cong., 434 (1789). If the amendment had passed the clause would have read: 'No person shall be subject, except in cases of impeachment, to more than one punishment or one trial for the same offense by any law of the United States.' [italics supplied] *Id.*, at 753."

The Other Half of History

Erwin J. Urch

COMPETENT teachers of history rarely teach two or more classes in the same course in the same way. They adapt their teaching procedure to the personnel of a class as soon as they become acquainted with it. This adaptation results from the realization that they are teaching people as well as a history course, and that their teaching necessarily involves interpretation of the history.

Therefore, since no author or authors of a history textbook could possibly have interpreted the history so that it would uniformly meet the needs of all history classes, effectual history teaching cannot literally "follow the book." It includes historical interpretation by which the textbook is made meaningful to each and every class. Moreover, such adaptation to the needs and capabilities of differing classes requires that history teachers should have a knowledge of subject matter greater than that contained in a textbook.

This extra knowledge both facilitates the interpretation of history and provides surplus information with which teachers keep up students' interest in the study of history. The purpose of this essay is to propose some debatable questions about historical interpretation and history writing. Have women been sufficiently included in written history? If not, why not? Is it reasonable to assume that the feminine half of the human race was always so comparatively unimportant as written history usually makes it appear? These questions could start some lively discussions between boys and girls in history classes, but not profitably unless their teachers were prepared with some forethought about the other half of history.

It certainly seems that, since the males normally comprise only about half of the human race, the history of humanity is no more men's

"Have women been sufficiently included in written history? If not, why not?" the author asks. Dr. Urch, who has contributed a number of articles to professional publications, is Professor of History at The Defiance College in Defiance, Ohio.

than women's. Women have shared in written history more by implication than by actual recognition. The women's, then, is the other half of history that is either insufficiently written, or else written separately. For example, several books have recently appeared bearing such titles as *Women in the Bible*, *Women in Feudal Society*, and *Women in Industry*. These separate treatments of women seem like attempts to make up for the previous exclusion of women from written history. Rarely have there ever been similar treatments of "men only," evidently because the men's half of history has been more sufficiently written.

History writing since the time of Herodotus has been done, until quite recently, almost entirely by men. This fact might explain why so many history textbooks adequately present prominent men, but omit, or barely mention, equally prominent women. For example, several such books on modern Europe give ample space to Emperor Franz Joseph of Austria but little if any to Queen Victoria of Great Britain. Such one-sided kind of history writing is something that alert history teachers could correct.

The truth is that in social and economic affairs women have always been far more active than one would conclude from reading the reports of the masculine chroniclers and historians. Moreover, in military history the warriors' mothers, wives, and sisters suffered tragic consequences, both personal and vicarious, and, therefore, had a share of the history, but it has rarely been written. But in political history, till about a half century ago, women had little share because the men had taken and kept pre-eminence in politics.

For ages girls and women were allowed little if any education, and thus were kept from attaining the competence that would have provided written accounts and other reliable evidences of how the feminine half of the human race had helped in the making of history. Nevertheless, there are original materials for the women's half of history which have never been ascertained and evaluated. It is unthinkable, for example, that female artists had no share at all in producing the ceramic works of the ancient Cretans, Greeks, Etruscans, and others. On hundreds of

Cretan vases which have been found are realistic portrayals of feminine costumes. Were all these made by men?

For at least six thousand years about which we know, the men succeeded in spreading themselves on the records by fighting and surviving numerous wars, by keeping politics entirely masculine, by monopolizing education, and then by writing the first incidental records as well as the later chronicles of what they had done. They were the actors in spectacular events; they created the greatest popular excitements; in short, they made the biggest noises in public life. But they and their noisy exhibitionism would soon have vanished if women had not made up the other half of human society.

As home-makers, as great mothers and wives, or as workers who provided food and clothing for families, if as nothing else, the women for generations were usually "the better half" of the human race. The instincts of men required homes and the women made them. Men achieved greatness often because they had great mothers or great wives or both who made them great. And men had their food made edible and their clothing fabricated mostly by women. For thousands of years women spun the thread and with it wove the cloth with which the nakedness of everybody was covered. Never was human society so much "a man's world" as men themselves have made it seem.

In most known communities of people, it was only as women had opportunity outside the responsibilities of motherhood and home-making that they could do much that was original or creative. Consequently, as fundamental for human survival as women's work was, its importance was usually implied, rather than asserted, in most historical writings. But implication alone is hardly enough recognition of the women's share of history.

Original written records, revelatory artifacts, and other primary sources for historical information were almost eloquent in their relative silence about the women. The aggression of the males took dominance over human society and usurped the forefront in history. And "the better half" of society meekly stayed in the background. So only with great difficulties could the history-making women be resurrected from oblivion, even by the most diligent and fair-minded historians. But though the original materials are meager and fragmentary and historical imagination might have to be overworked, some genuine

correctional history writing could certainly enlarge the women's half of written history. Meanwhile, the lack of it is a challenge to history teachers who want to tell the whole story.

In most general history both men and women must be collectively the subject matter. The readers of such history, male or female, commonly recognize themselves in it. Masculine history readers, by means of imagination, project themselves into it and assume that men have been more the makers of it than they really were. But the feminine history readers could often assume the most for the girls and women of the past and still not comprehend the whole historical truth.

Possibly the ignoring of women in written history explains why fewer girls than boys study history. This feminine disinclination appears more in colleges, as if the girls had become convinced that history is "a man's subject," or as if they had come to suspect that their kind of people had been unjustifiably ignored by the history writers. They could hardly be interested for long in history in which, so much of the time, human society seems to have survived and flourished without the aid of women. Surely, female students of history must be puzzled to know how or why their ancestral half of the human race seems to have been excluded from it.

A few of our best historians, however, are women. Even so, they write history, for the most part, according to models furnished by the more numerous masculine historians. Apparently, women prefer to write about men; the reverse seems not to be true. To be sure, Katherine Anthony wrote an excellent biography of Catherine the Great; and Stefan Zweig wrote another of Marie Antoinette. But C. Veronica Wedgwood wrote one of the latest books on Oliver Cromwell and another on William the Silent; and Catherine D. Bowen wrote the most readable "Lives" of John Adams and Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes. Women historians have written the men's half of history, as if keeping women comparatively out of written history had become a sacred tradition that could not be violated. In fact, Mary R. Beard's book on women in history was treated as a piece of unforgivable effrontery.

For ages men have said, "Women's place is in the home," the implications of which, even if nothing else should be considered, are that women have had a big place in history. It probably was first said in ancient Athens. But the "protective custody" the men assumed over the women could hardly be construed as recognition of the historical importance of home-making.

Quite different from the customary status of women in old Athens, however, was the role the philosopher Plato would have assigned them. For the form of government he proposed in his famous *Republic* he wanted statesmen who would have neither property nor wives and families in the usual sense; but the women who would bear them children were to be educated in much the same way as the statesmen themselves. And Plato would have had separate dwelling places for the statesmen and for the mothers of their children and actually no genuine homes at all. Since such a way of life for the educated men and women who would form the elite of the state would become a model for citizens in general, Plato's most famous disciple, Aristotle, declared that his theories would not only degrade half of the human race; namely, the women, but would also ruin the family, the best normal support of orderly society. It is likewise significant that Euripides, a bold critic of the Greek way of life, antedated John Stuart Mill by more than two thousand years in his persuasion that women should be freed from unjust customs and given "women's rights."

Before Euripides' time Athens had fostered a peculiar kind of domestic isolation for women. The Athenian citizens, men only, strictly observed the custom of keeping their wives at home. But the wealthy citizens gave their wives the superficial role of exhibiting their husbands' riches. In fact, the rich Ionians in general wanted their wives lavishly adorned with the best clothing, abundant jewelry, and facial beautification, as though a major duty of wives was to reflect the munificence of husbands. Isolation by custom as well as by motherhood and home-making, however, allowed the wives of Athenian citizens few opportunities to appear in public.

On the other hand, ancient fathers even had the prerogative to decide whether or not their children were to be allowed to live. The mothers seem to have had no share in deciding the babies' fate. In Egypt the unwanted babies were put in baskets which had been conditioned against leakage by use of tar, rosin, or clay, and floated down the Nile. Spartan fathers had their weak or crippled babies put in isolated mountainous areas where occasionally they might be rescued by lonely strangers or, more frequently, be devoured by eagles or die of starvation. The girl babies were more commonly deprived of the lives their mothers had given them. In the Asiatic Near East during the second century B.C., the fathers had done away with so many of the in-

fant girls that the men outnumbered the women about two to one; even fewer females would have been saved if mothers of males for the armies had not been wanted. Here was population control without conscience; and it was a barbarous prerogative of fatherhood!

With survival of human society, of course, depending on both men and women, neither of them could be very truthfully regarded as the more important. The work that was naturally women's was routine and not unusual enough to be recorded in writings, especially when the few who could write were men. Moreover, throughout the long centuries of human history, women's work could not possibly have changed so much from time to time and, therefore, had the novelty that might have made it a subject of chronicles and other writings. But the scarcity of original information for the women's half of history is surely no proof that their share in the making of history was as comparatively unimportant as written history has made it seem.

Appreciation of women's importance in human society has varied from time to time and from people to people. For example, exceptional appreciation of women's place in history was shown by Sumerians and Cretans five thousand years ago. These peoples' monuments and sculptural portrayals represented women in control of human survival. They made deities appear in the forms of women and depicted the creed that in human motherhood is the source of life for people and the symbolism of life for animals, grains, trees, and other growing things. These ancient peoples, therefore, worshipped mother goddesses. Such matriarchal religion is exceptional evidence of appreciation of womanhood. Centuries later the early Christians recognized the Jesus of history as the Christ of faith, so that eventually their successors would believe that, since Christ is God, the mother of Jesus must be "the Mother of God."

A revealing example of what women would do when partly deprived of the nurturing of their children, is the experience of the women of ancient Sparta. The Spartan wives and mothers had no mothering of their sons over seven years of age; the state took charge of its seven-year-old future citizens, uniquely educated them, and then trained them to be unbeatable soldiers. Soon after these young Spartans were separated from their mothers, they began calling every adult Spartan woman "mother," not knowing when they would see their real flesh-and-blood

mothers. And so the Spartan women had more than the usual number of years during which they were free to do other things besides mothering sons. Since their husbands spent at least thirty years mostly in military garrisons or in warfare, frequently also performing civic duties, compelled to devote themselves wholly to the state, only periodically at home with their wives, the Spartan home-and-family society was nearly always feminine.

There came a time when Spartan women had more control over the state-owned lands than did their fathers, husbands, and brothers. Not only was the more general Spartan society mostly feminine, but the Spartan economy largely resulted from feminine management. With the men monopolized by the state for military and civic services and the women meanwhile not mothering their sons older than seven, a typically Spartan division of daily work between men and women provided the latter with opportunity to do what elsewhere was ordinarily done by men. And their greater freedom allowed these Spartan women to employ their minds and abilities in wider spheres than the regimented Spartan men could possibly hope to do.

In quest of evidence for written history the masculine scholars have usually treated women's achievements as curiosities which could not be ignored. Thus they have presented Queen Hatshepsut of ancient Egypt, the first known pacifist ruler; Cleopatra, the last of her dynasty in Egypt; Queen Blanche of Castile, mother of the famous Louis IX; and many other such extraordinary women. But most historians are not even curious about great mothers like those of the Gracchi brothers, Constantine the Great, and St.

Augustine of Hippo. And they commonly ignore great wives like Octavian's Livia, Charlemagne's Hildegard, and Madison's Dolly. If the truth were learned, it would surely reveal that thousands of mothers made their sons capable of gaining the prominence they had in history; and innumerable wives likewise helped make their husbands what they were; but, for the most part, the men won fame and the women oblivion. Nevertheless, the impact of women on human affairs could hardly have been so slight as to justify little if any endeavor to include it in written history.

Today, women the world over are increasingly engaging in economic, political, social, and cultural activities once reserved exclusively for men. This development is in fact receiving at least a small measure of recognition in the history now being written. Even so, the writers of history textbooks and teachers of history still have much to accomplish before "the other half of history" receives the emphasis it deserves.

The girls in history classes need help in seeing people like themselves in the history they study; and for obvious reasons the boys should know that history is only about half "a man's subject." In many areas of written history the mere implication of women's presence in it should be converted into the fullest possible recognition of that fact. Such conversion is a challenging opportunity for the history teachers. While the women's is the other half of the history, teaching people as well as history is the other half of history teaching. And this essay presents only one of many examples of how history teaching could be made effectual by original historical interpretation.

YOUTH FOR PEACE

(Continued from page 177)

Americans abroad—less than one one-hundred-fiftieth of the sum we are now spending on our current foreign economic aid program. If we can afford to send many thousands of U. S. Army Officers to Turkey and Iran and Viet Nam and Pakistan to train soldiers, surely we can afford to send a small number of young Americans to train farmers and teachers.

President Kennedy received more letters on the Youth Corps, according to Press Secretary Pierre Salinger, than on any subject he raised

during the campaign. Letters from young Americans volunteering for the Corps, with an apparent full awareness of the sacrifice it entails, already fill several drawers of my filing cabinet. The letters prove that young Americans want to participate in the war against poverty and ignorance and disease. They want to involve themselves in the affirmative evolution of the have-nots. Surely the Administration and the Congress can fashion a bridge to assist their idealism to become reality.

Grouping within Large Classes

Eugene Defilippis and Guy C. Klitgaard

During the past two years Andrew Hill High School has been experimenting with team teaching in courses in World History, United States History, and Senior Problems. Authors Eugene Defilippis and Guy C. Klitgaard are currently working together on the World History course. In an effort to meet the problems of individual differences involved in a heterogeneously grouped class of approximately 80 students, they divided the students into three main groups. As the weeks passed, they compiled a list of the questions raised by interested observers. The more relevant of these questions, together with the authors' answers, appear below. "We welcome correspondence," Messrs. Defilippis and Klitgaard write, "and are more than willing to answer other questions teachers may have concerning our work."

I. What is the general purpose of grouping?

We attempt to place the students into groups which will best meet their intellectual abilities and allow them a more reasonable opportunity to progress at a rate which will not hinder or discourage their learning process.

II. Why group?

1. It seems to be unjust to have students attempting work which they cannot comprehend.
2. To make work more understandable for the student.
3. If students are not grouped, they will tend to get discouraged if the work is too difficult to understand.
4. It makes the student realize more clearly what knowledge he has in relation to others.
5. The teacher can see the growth of individual students much clearer.
6. The teacher can better determine the effectiveness of his or her teaching.

III. How do you group individuals?

1. It is strictly on a voluntary basis.
 - A. Each student selects his group after getting an explanation of it.
 - B. Instructors will guide students if they are uncertain as to which group they belong.
 2. Students may stay in a group as long as an adequate job is being done by them in that group.
 - A. An adequate job will be determined by the teacher on the basis of what the particular student should be doing in this group.
 - B. Pre-tests are given to help students select the correct group.

C. Information is gathered from teachers who have had the students the previous year. This helps to determine a student's potential.

3. The students may be placed in a different group.

A. Voluntarily if desired by the student any time.

B. Mandatory only if the student fails the course at the end of the quarter or semester.

C. Recommended—good performance in one group can indicate to a student that a higher group would be more advantageous for him.

IV. How is it determined that a student is in the correct group?

1. By the performance in his own group work.
2. By sometimes taking experimental tests.

A. Giving other group tests to students (interchanging group tests). For example, Group I student takes Group II's test.

V. Why not group homogeneously and eliminate grouping within the class? Is this a good idea?

1. Grouping homogeneously is probably fine for the better students (Group I), however not for the lower student (Group III).
2. Groups II and III are stimulated by having the better students within the class.
3. Many students have a desire to get into a more advanced group, so they try harder.
4. Some students do not have any ambition to go up, but they don't want to be the lowest.

VI. In what ways can the lower students benefit from the better students?

1. By listening to the reports and panels, etc., performed by Group I students.

2. Listening to the instructor vary his assignments for the higher group will be a stimulating factor to the lower groups.
3. By being placed in a committee or group of better students for study purposes.
4. The knowledge that superior groups are in the classroom tends to make students work harder.

VII. Why have three groups? Wouldn't two do the job?

1. Individual differences vary greatly; therefore, it is necessary to provide a wide variety of activity in classes that are heterogeneously grouped.
2. It is much easier for a student to progress step by step rather than attempt the full load at once.
3. By going from Group III to Group II, a student goes from writing short one-word answers to short essays and question of two- or three-choice answers to four- or five-choice answers.
4. By going from Group III to Group I, the change would be drastic from simple questions to long essay and research papers.

5. It is possible for a student to progress from Group III to Group I within several years. For example, if started in citizenship (Freshman) in Group III, a student could be in Group I in United States history (Junior) or possibly sooner in many cases.

VIII. Can students progress at their own rate of speed under this system?

1. Yes.
 - A. This would have to be done on a voluntary basis involving only those students that prefer or desire to do so.
 - B. Instructors must be well organized.
 - (1) Future tests and quizzes must be made available to these students as soon as they want them.
 - (2) All worksheets, etc., of all groups must be made available to these students.
 - (3) Exams, quarter-finals included, must be ready for these students to take.
 - C. Students who pass the course early must be permitted to do research on any phase of world history they desire.
 - D. Specific dates should be set up for these students, who have passed, to give a report on their research topic.

X. Can one instructor handle all three groups?

1. It depends on assignments, but usually the answer would be No.

No	Yes
Worksheets	Lecture
Committee work	Filmstrips
Panels	Movies
Library work	Tape recording
*Testing	
*Debates	
*Oral reports	

* Indicates that two instructors would be preferable.

X. What determines the degree of difficulty for group assignments?

1. Experimenting is the only answer.
2. Each school is different.
3. Group III assignments should be made simple at first, then increased accordingly. For example, use questions with two choices at first, then use three, and possibly four.
4. Group II assignments should be made more difficult than Group III and less than Group I. Then these should be increased or decreased to meet the need.

XI. Wouldn't this be unfair to the "C" student in Group I doing difficult work compared to the "C" student in Group III doing easy work?

1. No. It could be, however, if not handled properly.
2. By interchanging tests it can be checked quite well.

A. "C" students in Group I should easily pass Group III exams with top grades.

B. "C" students in Group III should have as great a knowledge of the subject as the Group I students; however, they may not be able to put it into writing as well.

3. A special "C" may be given and placed in the permanent record. For example, (C) would indicate non-college prep. for Group II and III.

4. Group II should be given enough fill-in and short-answer questions to enable "C" students to do as well as Group I "C" students.

5. It is also equally true that Group I students are expected to do better than "C" work. Normally a Group I "C" student has been neglecting his school work; whereas a Group III "C" student has to do top work to receive this grade. This in itself offsets the difference.

XII. Couldn't one instructor do the same job with 35-40 students?

1. Yes. However, not so effectively because:
 - A. Organization would be too much for one instructor.

- B. There would be no one to help the instructor during activities (this is essential).
- C. One instructor couldn't split the class for library work.
- D. One instructor couldn't work with two groups at the same time.
- E. There wouldn't be two minds to evaluate instructional material.

XIII. Is there a tendency for parents to dislike grouping for their children?

- 1. No. Because of various reasons:
- A. Instructors do not group students. The students group themselves. (Instructors act only as guides.)
- B. If parents dislike the group their child is in, instructors welcome a change.
- C. The program must be sold to the students as well as to the parents. (A letter of explanation to the parents, and much discussion with the students.)
- 2. If some parents feel that their child is not getting enough essay work, then the answer is to have the child move to Group I which is strictly essay.
- 3. If some parents feel that their child is getting too much essay work, then the solution would be to move the student into Group II or Group III.

XIV. Are students always grouped in all activities?

- 1. No. In many activities they are handled as a single class.
- A. Lectures
- B. Movies
- C. Filmstrips
- D. Oral reports
- E. Panel discussions
- F. Quizzes on any of the above

2. The Group II and Group III students can show their ability in competing with Group I. This is a stimulating factor to many lower students.

3. This competitive feeling should be encouraged. Listings of scores on such exams, or quizzes, should be posted to allow students to compare their scores with students in other groups.

XV. If students in Group III have difficulty in expressing themselves in writing, then is it fair to test them on lectures on an equal basis with Groups I and II?

- 1. Yes.
- A. All the lectures are projected on a screen with the overhead projector. This permits all students to copy the entire lecture outline.
- B. This is practice in writing and spelling and proper use of English, etc.
- C. Most of the quizzes of this nature are objective; therefore, no expression of thought is required in writing.
- D. Lectures must be slow and explained well in order for Group III to understand.

XVI. What determines whether a student should be advanced to a different group?

- 1. Making a "C" continuously in Group III.
- 2. Making a "B" continuously in Group II.
- 3. Usually if a student makes close to the maximum score in two or three consecutive tests, the change should take place.
- 4. A change should be made immediately and not at the end of the quarter or semester. This would allow the student to gain his fullest potential in the course.
- 5. Advancement for Group I students is explained under question VIII.

JOHN HAY FELLOWSHIP AWARDS

John Hay Fellowships for 1961-62 have been awarded to 76 public high school teachers, the John Hay Fellows Program announced in a recent press release. The awards total almost three-quarters of a million dollars.

These 76 teachers, selected from twenty states and the District of Columbia, will study for a year in the humanities at one of six universities: California, Chicago, Columbia, Harvard, Northwestern, and Yale. Each Fellow will receive a

sum equivalent to his teaching salary in addition to full tuition, health fee, and transportation costs for himself and his family.

In announcing the awards, Director Charles R. Keller said, "The John Hay Fellows Program through its year-fellowships and summer institutes in the humanities is pleased to be speaking up for the humanities and to be giving high school teachers opportunities to recharge their intellectual batteries."

Curriculum Materials

Helen Yeager and Stanley E. Dimond

World History

Annotated by Helen Yeager
Cincinnati Public Schools

World History and Government (Tentative). Grade 9. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The School Board, 1959. 100 p. Philadelphia Public Schools. General Guide for Teachers of World History.

This ninth-grade course is intended to be a survey course. The bulletin helps to delineate the material to be covered in the course, to determine the relative weight of the various topics, and to provide suggestions for teaching the course.

The course includes thirteen units. It begins with "The Birth of Civilization" and concludes with "The World Today." A distinguishing feature of each unit is a selected list of generalizations. Each unit is followed by pupil activities, supplementary books, and audio-visual aids.

The Struggle for European Leadership. Louisville, Kentucky: Winifred D. Broderick, 1958. 85 p. Louisville Public Schools. Resource Unit for Teaching World History.

This is one of a series of resource units for world history. Three concepts are presented: nationalism, democracy, and religious differences.

In addition to other features the unit contains several charts. One presents great leaders, another great events, and a third, the growth of democracy in France, England, Italy, and the Americas in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries.

New Patterns Test Traditions. Louisville, Kentucky: Winifred D. Broderick, 1958. 133 p. Louisville Public Schools. Resource Unit for Teaching World History.

This is one of a series of resource units for world history. It may be preceded by the resource unit, *Old Lands in New Focus* (annotated below). Six topics are presented: The Middle Ages, The Church, The Renaissance, The

This is the first of a series of annotated lists of selected curriculum materials prepared for *Social Education* by members of the NCSS Curriculum Committee. This project was initiated under the chairmanship of Jean D. Grambs, and is being carried on by the present chairman, Stanley E. Dimond.

Readers are urged to send curriculum materials not reviewed here to the Washington office, attention of Merrill F. Hartshorn.

Scientific Revolution, Christianity, The New Democracy.

In addition to an appendix, there is a series of charts which presents leaders in art, science, literature, and religion between 800 A.D. and 1700 A.D.

Old Lands in New Focus. Louisville, Kentucky: Eva M. Skillman, 1956. 220 p. Louisville Public Schools. Resource Unit for Teaching World History.

This is one of a series of resource units for world history. This unit seeks to develop understanding of many of the old civilizations which now are assuming prominent positions in the world. The six civilizations presented are those of the ancient land of the Pharaohs, Greece, Persia and Iran, Italy, Israel, and the Arab World.

An appendix contains much current information about each area.

World History for High School: Regents Course of Study. New York, New York: Board of Education, 1959. Curriculum Bulletin No. 11. 41 p. (25 cents). New York City Public Schools. Guide for Teachers of Regents Classes.

This course of study in world history (Regents) is the work of a committee appointed by the Board of Superintendents. The bulletin presents the outline by both the chronological approach and the topical approach.

This course is intended for both the average and superior pupils who are candidates for the academic and commercial diplomas. It is intended also to supply the world background material for the American History with World Backgrounds III Regents examination.

Resource Units in World History. New York, New York: Board of Education, 1959. Curriculum Bulletin No. 12. 140 p. (\$1.00).

The resource units presented in this bulletin were used experimentally by a large number of teachers. The teacher is to select material from them which is adaptable for use with pupils of different levels of ability. The units center on aspects of world history courses dealing with themes of democracy and dictatorship, the economic world in which we live, colonialism, and war and peace.

Each resource unit includes the following: introduction, aims, content, approaches, and activities.

At the end of the bulletin Appendix A includes a guide to distributors of visual aids; Appendix B treats the development of the resource units; and Appendix C presents a course of study in world history for non-regents pupils.

Suggested Procedures and Resources for a Course in World Culture (Preliminary Draft). Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: The Department of Public Instruction, 1959. 28 p. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Guide for Teachers of the Course in World Cultures.

The guide was prepared to aid teachers in teaching a newly required course in the cultures of representative nations of the world.

Nine regions are suggested for such cultural study. They are: Africa, except southern and northern portions; the Far East; South Central Asia, principally India; Southeast Asia and the Pacific; the Soviet Realm; the Moslem Area; Latin America; Commonwealth of Nations, the English-speaking portion; and Western Europe.

Detailed lists of audio-visual materials, selected supplementary materials, and selected texts appear for the areas chosen for study.

A Tentative Program in Modern World History. Chicago, Illinois: Board of Education, 1958. 94 p. Chicago Public Schools. General Guide for Teachers. Grades ten to twelve.

This course in modern world history should precede the study of United States history and follow the study of world geography. It is a one-year course placed in the tenth grade, but for purposes of flexibility, it is offered in grades ten to twelve.

The course gives attention to the entire world with units on Asia, Africa, the Middle East, the South Pacific, Europe, and the Western Hemisphere. It stresses social, industrial, and intellectual movements, as well as the political.

It begins in the middle of the eighteenth century. One half of the course deals with the twentieth century.

The content of the course is divided into six units. In addition to the content outline, each unit contains a list of suggested learning experiences, developmental vocabulary, and visual aids.

A Tentative Program in Early World History. Chicago, Illinois: Board of Education, 1958. 145 p. Chicago Public Schools. General Guide for Teachers. Grades nine to eleven.

This course in early world history should precede the study of modern world history. It is a one-year course which is usually offered in grade nine, but for the purposes of flexibility it may be offered in grades nine through eleven.

The course contains nine resource units from each of which the teacher may select the content and activities which will best meet the needs of a particular class or of particular individuals within the class. No special units are provided for gifted or for slow pupils. Each unit is assigned with sufficient breadth to include all levels of interest and ability. The bibliography is graded for: (1) the academically less able pupil; (2) the able pupil; and (3) the academically able pupil.

The course includes much that is cultural history in addition to political history. It does not confine itself to western culture, but includes the history of the peoples of the Middle East and the Far East, as well as that of the West.

Tentative Guide for World History in the Senior High Schools. Oakland, California: The Board of Education, 1959. 107 p. Oakland Public School. Tentative Guide for Teachers of World History.

The course is designed for academically able pupils. It is built around six areas. Area I presents an Introduction to the Study of World History; Areas II through V present a Study of Four Civilizations (Middle Eastern Civilizations, Oriental Civilizations, Slavic Society, and Western Civilization); Area VI presents a Review and Assessment of World Problems and Tensions Today. Although Area I is definitely to be considered first and Area VI last, Areas II through V may be considered interchangeably.

A detailed bibliography follows the presentation of the content material. Audio-visual material concludes the material for each area.

Curriculum Guide, World Cultures. Abington, Pennsylvania: Florence Benjamin and Claire Fox, 1959. 115 p. School District of Abington Township. General Guide for Teachers.

The guide is designed to present a required one-semester course in grade twelve. The purpose of the course is to develop international understanding through a study of the cultures of other peoples.

Five culture areas are presented. These areas were selected as those strategic areas of the non-western world about which less is known and because of their importance, more should be known. The areas presented are: Russia and Southeast Europe; Sino-Japanese Area; India and Southeast Asia; the Middle East; and Africa.

The Middle East: A Resource Unit for Secondary Schools. Brooklyn, New York: Brooklyn College, 1959. Revised edition. 25 p. (50 cents). Resource Unit on The Middle East.

The unit was prepared originally by a group of prospective social studies teachers at Brooklyn College under the direction of Professor Leonard S. Kenworthy, with help from the American friends of the Middle East and The Middle East Institute.

The units covers the countries of Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, and Saudi Arabia. The major emphasis is on contemporary affairs. Some attention is given to the past history of the area.

Attention is given to the leaders of the areas, as well as important general information. Bibliography, audio-visual material and names and addresses of organizations interested in the Middle East are part of the unit.

Southeast Asia: A Resource Unit for Secondary Schools. Brooklyn, New York: Brooklyn College, 1959. Revised edition. 24 p. (50 cents). Resource Unit on Southeast Asia.

This unit was prepared originally by a group of prospective social studies teachers at Brooklyn College and edited by Professor Leonard S. Kenworthy. It includes materials on Southeast Asia in general, Burma, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaya, the Philippines, Thailand, and Viet-Nam (North and South). It does not include Formosa or Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, or the disputed parts of Indonesia.

Materials in the form of Bibliography for Teachers and Pupils and Audio-Visual Aids are listed for each country. The unit also contains a list of addresses of the Embassies of these nations and of publishers cited.

China: A Resource Unit for Secondary Schools. Brooklyn, New York: Brooklyn College, 1959. Revised edition. 27 p. (50 cents).

The unit was prepared originally by a group of prospective social studies teachers at Brooklyn College and edited by Professor Leonard S. Kenworthy.

The material is prepared to give a one-month unit on the study of China. It is suggested that if it is used in a geography class, emphasis be on the geographic aspects; if it is used in a world history class, emphasis may be more on the past than on the present and the future.

Attention is given to terminology, bibliography, and

audio-visual material, as well to names and addresses of publishers of materials on China.

A comparative historical chart is included which shows the comparison of historical development from 1800 B.C. to 1900 A.D. between the West and the Chinese world.

India: A Resource Unit for Secondary Schools. Brooklyn, New York: Brooklyn College, 1959. 25 p. (40 cents). Resource Unit on India.

This unit was prepared originally by a group of prospective social studies teachers at Brooklyn College and edited by Professor Margaret Cormack and Professor Leonard S. Kenworthy.

The unit contains twelve one-page presentations of various phases of India and one page of suggested activities. A glossary, bibliography, and sources of other materials and information conclude the unit.

Civics

*Annotated by Stanley E. Dimond
University of Michigan*

Resource Manual Ninth-Grade Civics. Akron, Ohio: Akron Public Schools, 1959. 84 p. (no price given).

Resource Units for Community Civics. Baltimore, Maryland: Department of Education, Baltimore Public Schools (Junior High School History Department), 1956. 107 p. (no price given).

Civics-Curriculum Bulletin 11, Grade 9. Cincinnati, Ohio: Cincinnati Public Schools, 1958. 145 p. (\$3.00).

Teachers' Guide for 9B Social Studies. Cleveland, Ohio: Cleveland Public Schools (Division of Social Studies), 1959. 130 p. (no price given).

A Series of Units in Ninth Grade Social Studies. South Bend, Indiana: (Department of Curriculum), 1959. 228 p. (no price given).

These five curriculum guides have much in common. All are attempts to rethink the commonly taught community civics course. All are grade 9 courses, except Baltimore's, which is for grade 8B. The process of preparation has been quite similar: teacher committees over a fairly long period of time have developed the guides. Consultants from outside the school systems have been utilized in most cases.

The structures of the guides show more likes than differences. Most use the traditional organization of units: overview, objectives, content outline, activities, bibliography. Only two—Cleveland and South Bend—contain suggestions for evaluation. The organization of the Akron guide is unique, two-thirds of the material consisting of basic content organized in outline form to provide a content background for the teacher. Following this lengthy section, goals are stated, a general problem-solving procedure for teaching is described, and bibliographical references are given.

The feature that makes the Cleveland course different is an interesting system of parallel columns. The left column presents an outline of unit content; the right column pro-

vides suggested activities to fit the content. This scheme seems to provide a better relationship between content and method than is usual. Beginning teachers, particularly, should find the ideas helpful.

The South Bend guide provides some interesting teaching exercises that should be effective. Actual cases are provided for discussion. Realistic exercises to promote critical thinking are included. Unit tests are provided from which teachers may make their own tests. The quality of these tests is high. One can hope that the South Bend practice might be emulated in other guides; teachers prefer actual evaluation instruments rather than suggestions on how evaluation might be done.

The Cincinnati course is featured by attractiveness and thoroughness. Color and photographs have been used to make the guide appealing to teachers.

The Baltimore guide is particularly successful in relating information about Baltimore and Maryland to the over-all course.

The content of these guides indicates the uncertainties of what should be taught at this grade level. The basic content is from political science—from local, state, and national government. But the impact of economic education is clear. Akron, Cincinnati, and South Bend give a strong emphasis to economics. While Akron offers government in the 9B grade, this 9A guide is devoted entirely to economic learnings organized around three units: Seeing People as an Economic Resource; Money, Banking and Credit; Our Local and Regional Economy. Cincinnati devotes 12 weeks to economic citizenship following ten weeks given to Social Citizenship—Family, Church, School and Community, and 16 weeks to Political Citizenship. South Bend devotes eight weeks to a unit on earning, spending, and saving, and four weeks to a unit on vocational information. Only Cleveland and South Bend provide this type of career guidance unit.

Increased attention is devoted to international relations particularly the United Nations. Baltimore, Cincinnati, and South Bend have good units of this type in these guides.

These guides should be useful to the teachers for whom they were designed. Each is also sufficiently unique to warrant study by curriculum leaders.

A Lesson on the Constitution for the Fifth Grade

Mildred Howarter

ANNIVERSARIES of historic events furnish opportune occasions for teaching understanding and appreciation of our heritage. Although the following device was used by the author as a Constitution Day activity, with only a few minor revisions it could easily be implemented as part of a unit on the Constitution.

Before the day on which the teacher planned to discuss the Constitution with her fifth-grade social studies class, she made it a point to secure a number of one-dollar bills. With the understanding that they would be returned to her at the end of the period, she distributed the bills among the pupils. In this way, she not only made sure of captivating class attention, but she provided her students with an opportunity to study at close range the Great Seal of the United States, both sides of which are reproduced on a one-dollar bill.

The teacher discussed with the class the significance of the seal as it is explained in *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*.¹ She called attention to the fact that the eagle is pictured powerfully bearing the shield without other support, suggesting that the new United States meant to be self-reliant and strong. She explained that the eagle holds the olive branch and arrows in its talons even as Congress bears the power of peace and war in its hands. She interpreted with her class the meaning of the scroll, "E Pluribus Unum," the thirteen stars and stripes.

In studying the reverse side of the seal, the teacher was able to lead the group to associate the great, enduring pyramids with strength. The Roman numerals MDCCLXXVI on the base of the pyramid were converted to 1776, the date of the Declaration of Independence. The meanings of the Latin phrases as translated in the encyclopedia reference were discussed.

Miss Howarter teaches in the fifth grade at Bate-man School in Galesburg, Illinois.

Up to this point, the teacher had been careful to make no mention of the Constitution or of Constitution Day. She now placed the following subtraction problem on the blackboard.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{September 17, 1960} \\ - \text{September 17, 1787} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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"Does anybody know of anything that happened 178 years ago on September 17?" the teacher asked. No one knew. By way of a clue, the teacher suggested that the students examine carefully some of the documents posted on the walls of the classroom. One little girl found what she was looking for in the words printed at the bottom of a copy of the Constitution, "Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present the 17th day of September in the year of our Lord 1787...."

The teacher then asked the pupils to consider in what ways the Constitution was important to them, and discussed with them such of the "freedoms" as could be appreciated by fifth graders. Using as a source book, *You and the Constitution of the United States* by Paul Witty and Julilly Kohler, she presented some of the important ideas set forth by George Washington, James Madison, and Benjamin Franklin at the Constitutional Convention.

In order to keep the information the children had gained from their study of the Constitution and the Great Seal fresh in their minds, the teacher compiled a list of questions to be used in class question bees throughout the year:

1. Give a reason why the Constitution is important to you?
2. When did the Constitutional Convention meet?
3. Where did the Constitutional Convention meet?
4. Name three men who attended the Constitutional Convention.
5. Tell the significance of three things which are por-trayed on the Great Seal of the United States.

¹ "American Flags and Their Romantic Stories." *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*. Chicago: F. E. Compton and Company, 1957. Vol. 5, p. 151.

Notes and News

Merrill F. Hartshorn

Report of the Meeting of the Fourth House of Delegates

The following is a summary of the report submitted by J. R. Skretting of the Florida Council for the Social Studies who was elected secretary of the House of Delegates.

The meeting of the Fourth House of Delegates was held on Wednesday, November 23, 1960, in the Ballroom Assembly of the Statler Hilton Hotel, Boston, Massachusetts. A total of 80 delegates from a possible total of 112 were present, including the Board of Directors and officers who represent the membership at large.

The meeting was called to order by Eunice Johns, President of NCSS, who welcomed the delegates. The House elected its secretary; a committee on credentials was appointed; Minutes of the Third Delegate Assembly were distributed and approved with correction. The Agenda for the 1960 meeting was adopted as amended.

Henry Borger, Jr., presented, in behalf of the Committee on Academic Freedom, a resolution concerned with registering a protest to and urging Congressional repeal of the disclaimer affidavit of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. After a brief discussion, the resolution was approved with the recommendation that it go to the chairmen of the appropriate committees in both the House and Senate as well as the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare. (This resolution, with the recommendation, was approved by the Board of Directors and adopted at the Business Meeting by the membership. The resolution as passed appears in the February 1961 issue of *Social Education*.)

Affiliation and reaffiliation with NCSS and the basis for representation in the House of Delegates received considerable attention. After a great deal of discussion on this matter, it was recommended that the Boards of Directors of the NCSS consider the modification or postponement of the application of the 10 percent rule for reaffiliation with NCSS. The NCSS Board of Directors instructed the President to appoint an *ad hoc* committee to draw up a revised plan to be presented to them at their meeting in No-

vember 1961 for: (1) affiliation with NCSS, and (2) bases for representation of NCSS affiliated councils in the House of Delegates.

Regarding the question of the time of the Annual Meeting, the result of a survey made by the national office was distributed to the delegates. An analysis indicated that the Thanksgiving time for the meeting was the most popular one. In light of this no further recommendations were made.

The Executive Secretary reported on two major projects of the NCSS, the Glens Falls Experiment "Improving the Teaching of World Affairs," and the status of the Commission on the Social Studies.

Ruth Ellsworth of the Committee on Utilization of Teacher Time asked for support from the House of Delegates in providing her committee, through questionnaires which the committee would send out, with essential basic data on the present situation, including any experimental practices going on. The delegates voted to do so.

In a discussion of administrative and community pressures brought to bear in the handling of controversial issues, attention was called to general statements of policy already issued by the National Council. These were published in *Social Education*, January 1950; May 1951; and May 1953. Also the Council has published a pamphlet entitled *How To Handle Controversial Issues*, part of the How To Do It Series. It was suggested that the National Council collect and keep a file of statements by school boards on this question to be made available to other boards contemplating such action. No formal action was taken on this suggestion.

During a discussion of the availability of funds for strengthening programs and teaching in the social studies as compared with other curriculum areas, the House of Delegates endorsed a resolution, presented by the Puget Sound Council, concerned with the making of grants to social studies teachers for advanced study and for improvement of social studies classroom facilities and curriculum. (This resolution was adopted by the NCSS Board of Directors and the membership at the Annual Business Meeting. The resolution as

passed appears in the February 1961 issue of *Social Education*.)

Ralph Cordier, co-chairman of the Committee on Election Procedures of NCSS, gave a report of that committee. The report consisted of specific suggestions, plus proposed amendments to the NCSS Constitution to provide for a mail ballot. After a lengthy discussion, the House recommended to the Board of Directors that the Constitution be amended to provide for election by mail ballot. (This recommendation was approved by the NCSS Board of Directors and amendments were read at the Business Meeting. The amendments as read appear in the February, 1961, issue of *Social Education*.)

S. P. McCutchen reported on the National Purpose Project which has asked the NCSS to become a cooperating agency. Members of the House of Delegates were asked if this Project would be of interest to the councils they represented. From the response given the general consensus was that this Project would have a great deal of appeal to local and state councils.

The meeting adjourned at 4:30 p.m.

Prince George's County

The Prince George's County (Maryland) Council for the Social Studies held its First Annual Dinner Meeting in Bladensburg December 8. The speaker for the occasion was President Eunice Johns who told of her experiences as a participant in a trip to Japan last summer.

The next meeting of the Council was held March 2. The last meeting of the year will be held May 4. For further information contact Miss Helen Roe, 4107 Oglethorpe Street, Hyattsville.

N.D.

Montana

The Social Studies Section of the Montana Education Association held two sessions during the meeting of the MEA on October 28. The breakfast meeting featured Vernon Cooper, Professor of History at Eastern Montana College of Education, in a discussion of "Africa, the Dark Continent and a Light."

A panel discussion at the morning session considered "Re-evaluation of the Social Studies in the School Curriculum." Participants included George Rollins, Eastern Montana College of Education; Rabbi Samuel Horowitz of Billings; Wendell Hadley of Rocky Mountain College; Kenneth V. Lottick, Montana State University; and Clarence Griepp, Billings Public Schools.

The meeting was planned by Charles Kenneth

McShane, President, and David Williams, President-elect of the Section, both of Billings.

K.L.

Maine

The Social Studies Section of the Maine Teachers Association held its meeting October 7 in South Portland. The theme of the meeting, "What Is a Good Social Studies Curriculum from Grades Seven through Twelve?" was carried out in a general panel discussion followed by three more panel discussions. The participants in the opening panel discussion were Robin Winks of Yale University, Howard Niblock, Winchester (Mass.) High School, and John Meader, a student at Bowdoin College. The subsequent panel discussions were as follows: Panel 1 discussed "How Shall We Organize the Two-Year Sequence?"; Panel 2 considered "What Should We Offer Students in Grades 7, 8, and 9?"; and Panel 3 devoted its time to "How About Castro and Khrushchev: How Much Time Do We Devote to Current Events in an Organic History Course? How Do We Present It?"

The final portion of the panel discussion was the presentation to the whole group of the conclusions of the three panels. The luncheon meeting which concluded the sessions heard Richard I. Miller, Assistant Director of the NEA Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, discuss "Social Forces and Trends Affecting American Education."

C.K.

Virginia

The Virginia council for the Social Studies held its annual meeting in Richmond, November 4. The luncheon speaker was Floyd M. Riddick, Assistant Parliamentarian for the United States Senate and lecturer at George Washington University. Mrs. P. M. Burton of Suffolk, President of the Virginia Council, presided over the program and the business session which followed the presentation by Dr. Riddick.

G.Y.

Bienville Parish, Louisiana

The annual workshop meetings of the social Studies Section of the Bienville Parish Schools were held on November 10 and 11 at Castor. The themes for the meetings were "Teaching for Effective Thinking" and "Framework for a Unit in the Social Studies." B. E. Tabarlet, Associate Professor of Education, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston, served as consultant for the meet-

ings. Mrs. Myrtle B. Warren was recording secretary and Ruby Bogan was chairman.

R.B.

Upper Peninsula Council

The Upper Peninsula Council for the Social Studies, formed last Fall, heard Eugene A. Whitehouse of Northern Michigan College, Marquette, discuss "Trends in the Study of History" and John H. Hamer, also of Northern Michigan College, speak on "Some Recent Conceptual and Methodological Developments in Anthropology and Sociology." The group selected William E. Carroll of Wakefield as its President; Gerald McKie of Norway, Vice-President; and Eugene Maki of Wakefield, Secretary-Treasurer. Plans are for the group to meet annually in the Spring and to participate in the regional education association meeting in the Fall of each year.

W.E.C.

San Joaquin Valley

The Fall Conference of the San Joaquin Valley Council for the Social Studies was devoted to "Current Thinking and Practices in the Teaching of Social Studies." The meeting, held in Bakersfield on October 29, heard John Jarolimek of San Diego State College and Howard E. Wilson of the University of California at Los Angeles. Section meetings considered the theme of the meeting at various grade levels, kindergarten through college. Another attraction of the meeting was displays of projects and activities, as well as book and map displays from various publishing houses.

F.H.P.

Minnesota

The first meeting of this academic year sponsored by the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies heard Mr. Mickelson of the New Ulm *Journal* speak on his recent world tour.

October 13 was the date on which the Minnesota Council cooperated with the World Affairs Center in the presentation of Livingston T. Merchant, Undersecretary of State for Political Affairs. The Annual Conference was held on February 24 and 25 and featured teachers who had traveled abroad in discussions of their experiences.

E.W.

Wisconsin

The Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies held a business meeting and election of officers November 5. Emlyn Jones, then NCSS President-

elect and Professor of History and Education at the University of Wisconsin in Madison, was the luncheon speaker. Dr. Jones' talk was followed by a report of the Advancement Committee on the social studies survey. The section meeting in the afternoon heard John H. Haefner of the State University of Iowa, discuss "An Assessment of the Future of the Social Studies for Wisconsin Schools." The talk was followed by a discussion of the speaker's comments and the results of the surveys.

N.S.

Connecticut

Samuel P. McCutchen, New York University, addressed the annual Fall meeting of the Connecticut Council for the Social Studies at Central Connecticut State College in New Britain.

The meeting centered around the topic "What Do We Teach in the Social Studies in the 9th and 12th Grades?" Other participants were Alexander Plante, Principal of E. O. Smith High School, New Britain, discussing the civics course, and Priscilla Johnson of North Haven High School who presented her views of the problems of democracy course in the 12th grade. The session closed with a luncheon meeting followed by an open forum discussion.

J.E.G.

Greater Cleveland

The Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies December 5 dinner meeting was treated to a talk by Allen Y. King titled "Europe Revisited 1960" Dr. King, in his illustrated talk, contrasted the Europe he visited eleven years ago with the Europe of today.

Also during December, Council members enjoyed an evening tour of the newspaper offices of the *Cleveland Plain Dealer* and observed the actual operation of publishing a newspaper. Other tours enjoyed by Greater Cleveland Council members were to the B. F. Goodrich Chemical Company in Avon Lake and to the Addressograph-Multigraph plant in Euclid.

C.K.

Atlanta Area Council

"The American Farm Problem" was the subject of discussion at the first of a series of seminars sponsored by the Atlanta Area Council for the Social Studies and held at Georgia State College of Business Administration on October 24. W. R. Knight, consultant of the Atlanta Joint Council on Economic Education, was the

speaker. The meeting was arranged by Mrs. Ruby Crowe, Fulton County Social Studies Coordinator.

The Atlanta Area Council also cooperated with the Division of Teacher Education and the Department of History of Emory University in preparations for a conference on high school history held November 19.

Mrs. Crowe, together with Mrs. Louise Bloodworth, Resource Teacher, Area 3, Atlanta, cooperated with Jack Elder, President of the Atlanta Area Council, and Edward T. Ladd and George P. Cuttino of Emory University in planning the conference. Following is a list of topics considered at the conference and the men who presented them: Nationalism and Imperialism in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries, Joseph J. Mathews; Historical Research and Auxiliary Sciences, George B. Cuttino; The Rise of the Communist Party in Russia, Kermit E. McKenzie; The Memorable War, Bell I. Wiley; American Foreign Policy in the Far East, R. Bingham Duncan; Soviet Foreign Policy, Richard F. Starr; Party Conventions and Presidential Elections, 1960, George F. Brasington.

P.A.S.

New Jersey

The New Jersey Council for the Social Studies conducted a meeting built around the theme "A Breakthrough in the Social Studies" at Millburn on March 22. The conference was designed to appraise the social studies program now being offered in the nation's schools.

Keynote speaker was Charles R. Keller, Director of the John Hay Fellows Program who proposed radical techniques for revising social studies offerings from kindergarten through college. The panel which analyzed Dr. Keller's talk included Richard Challenor, professor of history at Princeton University; Henry Winkler, chairman of the history department at Rutgers University; Francis Oldham, Superintendent of Watchung Hills Regional High School; and Herbert Ellis, chairman of the social science department at Paterson State College. After dinner the program resumed with a discussion of the problems inherent in the program of action presented by the keynote speaker. The discussants were David Wicks of the history department, Lawrenceville School; Jack MacDonough, Chairman of the social studies department, Columbia High School, South Orange; Melvin Shuttleworth, Principal of Clifford Scott High School, East Orange; and Loren Davis, Chairman of the

social studies department of Millburn High School. Council President Walter Kops of Montclair State College and David Weingast, Principal of Weequahic High School, planned the program.

D.W.

Evansville, Indiana

The Evansville Council for the Social Studies held its first dinner meeting in November. Featured speaker was Shirley Engle of Indiana University who addressed the group on "Reflective Thinking and Concept Teaching in the Social Studies Classroom."

The February 9 meeting heard Byron Massialas continue the discussion of reflective thinking and demonstrate the use of the generalization method in the social studies classroom.

R.F.G.

Oklahoma

The Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission—following its pattern of creating committees to provide statewide leadership in the areas of foreign language, mathematics, science, health and physical education, guidance and counseling, and the academically gifted—has authorized the appointment of a State Committee on Improvement of Instruction in Social Studies. The formation of the State Committee developed from an initial desire to re-vitalize the Oklahoma Council for the Social Studies. Because of the leadership of the Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission in the areas mentioned above, the Oklahoma Council for the Social Studies proposed that a joint effort be made to provide leadership for improvement of the social studies program at the state level. A preliminary meeting with F. R. Born, Executive Secretary of the Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission, was held in January 1960. As a result of that meeting, the state social studies committee was formed to represent elementary, secondary, and collegiate levels of instruction, supervision, and administration.

Subsequent meetings of the full committee resulted in the undertaking of three projects: (1) to survey the social studies offerings, kindergarten through grade twelve, in the public schools of the state, (2) to make a study of certification standards, and (3) to prepare a brochure which will provide orientation to the current social studies program and suggest bases for improving social studies instruction.

It is hoped these projects will be completed

this school year. A progress report was made at the meeting of social studies teachers at the OEA convention on October 28.

Chairman of the committee is Carl Oliver, Tulsa; Vice Chairman, Homer L. Knight, Oklahoma State University; and Secretary, Faye Bills, Oklahoma City. The balance of the membership of the committee consists of 22 social studies teachers from various parts of the state. C.O.

The Oklahoma Council for the Social Studies and the Southern Historical Association presented a discussion of "Recent Developments and Problems in High School and College History Teaching" on November 12 in Tulsa. Chaired by Homer L. Knight of Oklahoma State University, the program included "A Case Study in Cooperation Between Secondary and College History Teachers" with W. Burlie Brown of Tulane University making the presentation; "Accrediting Requirements for High School History Teachers," presented by Samuel Evans, Okla-

homa College for Women; and "Teaching History by Educational Television," presented by John S. Pancake of the University of Alabama. Carl Oliver of Tulsa Public Schools was the commentator.

P.P.J.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your contributions as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Nelda Davis, Kenneth Lottick, Charles Kahill, Gladys Yates, Ruby Bogan, William E. Carroll, Frances Hauser Park, Herbert Kamins and Karl Pfeiffer, Norris Sanders, John E. Gaisford, Clarence Killmer, Pansy A. Slapkey, David Weingast, Robert F. Garnett, Carl Oliver, and Pauline P. Jackson.

THE OAS

(Continued from page 181)

at the Bogotá meeting. Still, as long as Latin America does not identify itself with the Afro-Asian bloc of underdeveloped nations, but seeks economic aid within the Western Hemisphere, one of the major objectives of the OAS is being achieved.

In the maintenance of peace in the Western Hemisphere, the record of the OAS has been most encouraging. Disputes in the Caribbean, particularly between Haiti and the Dominican Republic and between nations of Central America have been conciliated through the offices of the Inter-American Peace Committee. There have been no military forces sent in, as with the UN in the Suez or Congo situation. Some disputes are beyond the power of the OAS. Recently the World Court announced an award in a dispute between Nicaragua and Honduras. The appeal to the Court had been at the suggestion of the OAS, since an award that either party might consider prejudicial to its interest would disrupt the OAS. In certain smoldering situations, such as the boundary dispute between Ecuador and Peru, the OAS as yet has not been able to dampen the ardor of either side. Whether a dispute between two major powers of Latin America or a Latin American state and the

United States could be handled by the OAS and have its decision enforced is a moot question. Only time will tell.

All told, I believe the OAS' future is bright. It would be grossly unfair to measure the accomplishments of the OAS against the grandiose ceremonial statements of its founders. Already it has progressed beyond the vision of the founders of the Pan-American movement in the nineteenth century. And the men who drew up the 1948 charter did not look upon it as a static organization, but as an evolutionary one which would grow into its responsibilities and, in time, increase them. Let us not measure the OAS today against a visionary yardstick of constituting the cornerstone of a true Western Hemispheric system in which all national boundary lines would be wiped out and the region merged into one nation. Within its present framework, the OAS is steadily increasing its responsibilities and capabilities despite the ultimate overwhelming power of the United States. For example, a great milestone was passed recently at the San José meeting this past summer, where the elephant and the ants got together, and the ants actually made the elephant pay full price for only half a loaf!

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Louis M. Vanaria

April days bring thoughts of love, flowers, and the Bureau of Internal Revenue. A recent copy of *Selected United States Government Publications* listed several interesting titles such as *Commissioner of Internal Revenue, Annual Report, 1960* (168 p. 65 cents); *Crime, Kidnaping, and Prison Laws* (448 p. \$1.25); and *Dear Mr. Clergyman* (6 p. 5 cents). The Superintendent of Documents (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.) may not have a sense of humor, but if the District Collector has a cold heart and a deaf ear, you might consider the availability of a chaplain. Then write your Congressman. In the meantime, be sure that your check is drafted properly and that you covered it with sufficient funds transferred from savings.

World Affairs

David R. Inglis, *Testing and Taming of Nuclear Weapons* (Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38 St., New York 16, N.Y. 28 p. 25 cents) is another timely pamphlet that explores the advantages and disadvantages of continued testing, both from a military and a scientific point of view.

The "Invitation to Learning" Reader on War and Peace (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Taplinger Publishers, 119 W. 57 St., New York 19, N.Y. 102 p. \$1) collects a series of radio discussions based on books that deal with the problem of war and the possibilities of peace. They range from Aristophanes to Woodrow Wilson and George Bernard Shaw. George Crothers is the editor.

Two Years of the De Gaulle Administration, June 1958-June 1960 (French Embassy, 972 5th Ave., New York 21, N.Y. 46 p. free) is a useful summary.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization is discussed in *NATO: Why and What Is It?* (Vital Issues, Center for Information on America, Washington, Connecticut. 4 p. 35 cents) and *Vigilance the Price of Liberty* (NATO Information Service, Department of State, FD/R, Room 4130, 7th and D Streets, S. W. Washington 25, D.C., free booklet).

The U.S. and the U.N.

Limited quantities of the following publications are available on request from the Office of Public Affairs, Department of State, Washington 25, D.C.:

An Address by President Eisenhower to the U.N. General Assembly, September 22, 1960.

The U.S. in the U.N., text of President Eisenhower's letter of transmittal accompanying his report to Congress on United States participation in the United Nations during 1959. (The report, *U.S. Participation in the U.N.*, may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents for 75 cents.)

The U.N.—Meeting Place of Nations, a leaflet listing the 82 member nations as of September 1, 1960, plus the 15 nations recommended and later admitted. The leaflet briefly describes the role of various U.N. agencies.

Progress Toward a World of Law and Our Expanding Foreign Relations, two addresses by Christian A. Herter in September, 1960.

Juvenile Delinquency

An investment of \$2.70 will provide teachers with a kit of 16 government publications by the Children's Bureau on the topic of juvenile delinquency. The following titles, based on special studies and published in 1960, can be purchased separately.

The Children's Bureau and Juvenile Delinquency, 73 p., 30 cents.

Sociological Theories and Their Implications for Juvenile Delinquency, 22 p., 15 cents.

Selected Annotated Readings on Group Services in the Treatment and Control of Juvenile Delinquency, 17 p., 15 cents.

Delinquency Prevention: The Size of the Problem, 9 p., 15 cents.

Identifying Potential Delinquents, 6 p., 10 cents.

Family Courts—An Urgent Need, 14 p., 15 cents.

Coordination of the National Effort for Dealing with Juvenile Delinquency, Governmental Responsibility, 17 p., 15 cents.

Comparison of Expenditures and Estimated

- Standard Costs for Selected Juvenile Delinquency Services*, 48 p., 25 cents.
- Current Training Needs in the Field of Juvenile Delinquency*, 16 p., 15 cents.
- How Effective Are Services for the Treatment of Delinquents?* 23 p., 15 cents.
- Delinquency and the Adolescent Crisis*, 7 p., 15 cents.
- State Agencies and Juvenile Delinquency*, 42 p., 20 cents.
- Staff and Training for Juvenile Law Enforcement in Urban Police Departments*, 42 p., 20 cents.
- Community Programs and Projects for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency*, 12 p., 15 cents.
- Survey of Probation Officers, 1959*, 24 p., 15 cents.
- A Survey of Sociological Instructors Who Teach Undergraduate Courses in Corrections*, 10 p., 15 cents.

Send remittance with order to the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

Population Change

Current Population Reports (Bureau of the Census, Washington 25, D.C. Series P-25, No. 223, 10 cents) compiles the final population count of the 1960 Census taken as of April 1 showing the components of population change from 1940 to 1960. The total population of the United States including Armed Forces abroad numbered 182,018,000 on December 1, 1960. This figure includes Alaska and Hawaii. The final count of the 1960 Census as of April 1 was 180,004,000. In 1960, for the seventh year in succession, births exceeded 4 million (at the rate of 23.7 per 1,000 of the population in 1959-60).

Elementary School Social Studies

C. W. Hunnicutt, ed., *Social Studies for the Middle Grades: Answering Teachers' Questions* (NCSS, 128 p. \$2.25) provides the background and answers the questions typically asked in teaching the middle grades. Its companion volume is *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten-Primary Grades* (NCSS, 156 p. \$2.00).

Occupational Guidance

A handbook of facts on women workers in the United States is published biennially by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. It brings together basic information on

women's employment and occupations; the age and marital status of women workers; women's earnings and income; women's educational status; and State laws affecting the employment and civil and political status of women. Send for 1960 *Handbook on Women Workers*, Bulletin 275 (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 160 p. 45 cents).

In planning their vocational futures, women need to know what training is available and where they can obtain it. It is with this in mind that the Women's Bureau prepared *Training Opportunities for Women and Girls* (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 64 p. 30 cents). It describes the types of training facilities currently available and suggests where to get additional information.

Place Geography

Teachers who are disturbed by the student's lack of knowledge about the location of places may want to consider Lobeck's *Places of the World* (C. S. Hammond, Maplewood, New Jersey, 8 map study areas and text, revised edition, 40 cents, 10 or more 30 cents). The student reads the text and when a place is mentioned he letters the name in the numbered space provided on one of the eight maps. At the rate of one minute for each of 1300 places, the eight maps would be completed in 20 hours. Sound interesting?

World History

Curriculum Suggestions and Teaching Aids for World Cultures for Pennsylvania (Curriculum Committee, Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies, 224 French St., Erie, Pa. 50 p. \$1.50) was prepared for use in Pennsylvania senior high schools. It should be of value also to all teachers who wish to give their students a broader and more sympathetic understanding of the peoples of the world. About four-fifths of the text is devoted to non-Western cultures.

Jerome Blum, *The European Peasantry from the Fifteenth to the Nineteenth Century* (Service Center for Teachers of History, 400 A Street, S.E. Washington 3, D.C. 30 p. 50 cents, 10 or more 25 cents) is a learned essay in rural history with suggestions for further reading in depth.

Requests for the following materials should be directed to Mr. Ward Morehouse, The Asia Society, 112 E. 64th St., New York 21, N.Y.: *Resources for Teaching About East Asia* (China, Japan, Korea, Philippines); *Paperbacks on Asia for High School Use; Needed Emphases in Asian Studies* (limited quantities free).

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Globes: Their Function in the Classroom. 14 minutes; color; sale, apply.

Here is a film suitable for in-service or pre-service teacher education. It should help motivate teachers to make better use of globes in the classroom, and to acquaint them with the various types of globes and the importance of a graded globe program.

Globes: Their Function in the Classroom shows the various types of globes, tells what each is good for, stresses the importance of the various types of mounting and outlines techniques for teaching with globes.

The first sequence points out that globes give true distance, directions, areas, and shapes. In the lower elementary grades, children can learn from individual 8-inch readiness globes that the earth is round, that water and land areas are different sizes and shapes, that the globe is a small model of our large earth, and that the globe can tell us much about the world in which we live.

As students learn more, they can advance to globes which gradually present more detailed information. They can use slated globes, political globes, three-dimensional globes, inflatable plastic globes, and earth and star relation globes. These globes should be correlated with maps of the same level.

As globes become more complex, symbols become more numerous, showing depths and elevations, populations, and a wide variety of man-made patterns. At this point symbol charts are helpful in teaching map and globe reading.

Generally speaking, the film emphasizes the importance of starting with a simple globe with few place names in the primary grades. In the middle grades the teacher should stress the earth's surface, and the use of legends. Later students get into more advanced globes and charts. On all levels the pupil should be encouraged to handle the globe, use it for individual study, and mark data upon it if it lends itself to this purpose.

A group of potential teachers with whom this film was used found that it served as an excellent introduction to the topic and stimulated further study of globe and map use.

Motion Pictures

Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood 28, California.

Spanish Community Life. 15 minutes; color or black-and-white; sale; apply. The story of a farmer who lives with his family not far from Madrid. He loves his land and he describes his way of life with honest pride.

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

World War I: The Background. 13½ minutes; sale, \$75. Historic newsreel footage illustrates this film review of the basic causes of international incidents which led to the war. Touching back to 1870, this film delineates the militaristic and nationalistic rivalry, entangling alliances, and international tensions of prewar years. Particular attention is given to the Balkan conflict, ententes, and alliances, and the Sarajevo incident leading to the declaration of war.

World War I: The War Years. 13½ minutes; sale, \$75. Identifies the allied and central powers and reviews their relative advantages in war potential. It discusses the German master strategy and its failure, the major campaigns of 1915-1916, and the final phases of the war.

World War I: Building the Peace. 11 minutes; sale, \$60. Historic newsreel footage focuses on the Big Three and scenes of the conference at Versailles. The film discusses the Treaty of Versailles—how it was written as a series of compromises, its provisions and effects on the map and peoples of Europe, the League of Nations as an integral part of the Treaty, and the failure of the treaty to insure a lasting peace.

Film Associates of California, 11014 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles 25.

An Egyptian Village. 17 minutes; color; rental, \$8.75. Everyday life of a fellah in a small farming village in today's Egypt. Shows farming, home life, and a wedding.

Background of the Civil War. 20 minute; color; rental, \$10. Compares the pre-war agricultural South and the industrial North. Explains the arguments, compromises, and Congressional acts. Ends with the firing on Fort Sumter.

How We Know the Earth's Shape. 10 minutes; color or black-and-white; rental, apply. Tells how man has found out about the earth's shapes. Gives proof of roundness.

Indiana University, Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, Indiana.

Which Way? 10 minutes; color or black-and-white; rental, apply. Stimulates an awareness of cardinal directions and their relationship to the child's everyday experiences. Suitable for primary grades.

How Far? 10 minute; color or black-and-white; rental, apply. Develops concepts of distances in terms of both time

and space. Good for beginning map making and geography.

Information and Community Relations, Western Conference of Teamsters, 870 Market St., San Francisco 2.

Wonders of Automation. 25 minutes; color; free loan. Modern day methods in harvesting, processing, and transportation of California's products.

Ernest Kleinberg Films, 3890 Edgewater Drive, Pasadena, California.

Germany Today. 22 minutes; color; sale, \$220. Four main aspects of West Germany are featured: the industrialized Rhine-Ruhr area, the farmer's Germany, the cultural environment, and the German love of parades pomp, and panoply.

Rothacker, Inc., Time and Life Building, Rockefeller Center, New York 20.

Mining for Nickel. 45 minutes; free loan. A clear picture of the complicated underground working of a great mining operation.

Sterling Educational Films, 6 East 39th St., New York 16.

The White House Story, 1790-1961. 50 minutes; sale, \$200. A thorough study of the White House and the families which occupied it. Starting with the plans, we see sketches of the construction and views of the interiors during different periods in our history. Here is outlined the weddings, births, galas, politics, and pathos of the nation's capital. This film is also available in two parts: Part I—1790 to 1881; Part II—1885-1961.

Filmstrips

Bel-Mort Films, 124 N.W. 9th Ave., Portland 9, Oregon.

Learning and Teaching. A series of four filmstrips in color dealing with the principles and methods of teaching. Individual titles are: "Transfer of Learning," "Instructional Material," "Determining Student Grades," "Grouping Students for Effective Learning." Each filmstrip sells for \$6.50.

National Film Board of Canada, 680 Fifth Ave., New York 19.

Great Lakes—St. Lawrence Lowlands Region: The Seaway. Sale: color, \$5. History of St. Lawrence River; profile of the waterway; progress of the construction; importance of the Seaway to Canada and the United States.

Great Lakes—St. Lawrence Lowlands Region: Manufacturing in the Lowlands. Sale: color, \$5. Map shows the extent of the area from Quebec City to Windsor, Ontario; color photographs show typical activities carried on in various kinds of factories; lengthy sequence on newsprint industry and textile factories.

Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Illinois.

The Western Migration. Set of four filmstrips in color

with accompanying sound on records. Sale: \$9 each, or \$27 for the four. Titles include "Into the Southwest" (Pike's expedition), "The Oregon Country," "The Gold Rush," "Three Routes to Eldorado" (how gold seekers went westward).

Our Land and Its Story. Set of six filmstrips in color, based on True Books of Childrens Press. Sale: \$4.75 each, or \$28.50 per set. Titles are "Conservation," "Indians," "Cowboys," "Freedom," "Pioneers," "Transportation."

Educational Television

The University of Akron is initiating a closed-circuit TV system which will reach 35 classrooms and will carry courses for credit. It will also produce instructive courses for distribution over the Ohio State TV network.

The Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction got under way in January 1961. This project will telecast instructional courses, recorded on video tape, from a plane circling at high altitude over north-central Indiana to schools and colleges in Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. Financed in part by a Ford Foundation grant of \$4,500,000, the total cost is estimated at \$7,500,000. Social studies teachers in the area will receive four 30-minute programs per week in civics entitled "Our Nation Indivisible," and an American history program for senior high schools entitled "Our Adventure in Freedom" (four days a week, 30-minute telecasts).

Of All Things

Write to the International Visual Education Service, Inc. (300 S. Racine Ave., Chicago 7) for a list of 50 "Pictorial Poster Maps." Each of these maps of historic places is 22 by 17 inches in size and includes pictures of principal towns, events, and peoples. The set of 50 poster maps costs \$39.95, or they may be purchased singly at \$1 each.

From the same source listed above one may also purchase a set of pictures of each of our Presidents. The pictures are in color, 8 1/4 by 10 1/8 inches. The set costs \$2.95.

A series of study prints, each 10 3/4 by 13 3/4 inches, on "A Newspaper at Work" are available from Film Associates of California, 11014 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles 25. Mounted on heavy stock, these black-and-white prints demonstrate graphically how stories get into the newspaper. There are 15 prints in the set which sells for \$5 per set.

A complete list of the films available from Indiana University may be obtained by writing to the Audio Visual Center, Division of Univer-

sity Extension, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Their offerings include the famous "Constitution in Action" series, "Revolution" series, and "Our Community" series.

The January, 1961 issue of *Social Education* dealing with "The Middle East" carried a selected list of audio-visual material on that part of the world. Missing from this list were any records to be used in units on the Middle East. From Folkways Record and Service Corporation (117 West 46th St., New York City) we have just received a good list of records which should be extremely useful in teaching about Palestine, Turkey, the Arab countries, Lebanon, Egypt and the other nations of the Middle East. Examples of these records are *Folk Music of Palestine*, *Music of South Arabia, Songs and Dances of Turkey*, *Folk Songs and Dances of Iran, Islamic Liturgy Reading from the Koran Songs and Dances of Armenia*. The records sell for \$4.25 and \$5.95. A complete list will be sent upon request. Folkways also has a list of records on the music of Africa.

A complete list of 2- by 2-inch color slides on all parts of the world is available from Atkins Travel Slides, Inc., 2045 Balboa St., San Francisco. Slides are available on almost every section of the globe. The minimum order is 8 slides at 30 cents each.

You may be interested in writing to the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship, Inc. (114 East 32nd St., New York 16) for a copy of their list of documentary films and photographic exhibits. The covering letter which we received states: "Our principal task is that of furnishing information concerning life and activities in the Soviet Union. Colleges and universities throughout the country utilize our educational services to provide factual materials for the ever-increasing courses concerned with one or more aspects of developments in the Soviet Union."

A great deal of useful materials for the social studies has been produced and is distributed by America's motor car manufacturers. A general guide to booklets, films, charts, posters, and teaching kits produced by divisions of General Motors is entitled "Aids to Educators" and copies are free from Educational Relations Section, Public Relations Staff, General Motors Corporation, General Motors Technical Center, Warren, Michigan.

A Look and Listen Book on Iran is the latest in a series of sound and picture books on the different nations of the world. The book contains

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24 full-color photographs which summarize important aspects of the culture and present-day life of Iran. Three pages of the book are devoted to authoritative information about Iran in text form. In the back of each book is a 33 1/3 rpm record containing narrative which explains each photograph in detail. The reverse side of the record contains authentic Iranian folk music. Copies of the *Look and Listen* book, complete with record, are \$3.75 from International Communications Foundation, 9033 Wilshire Blvd., Beverly Hills, California.

The 1961 catalog of *Maps, Globes, Charts, Atlases and Models* is now available from Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235-59 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago 40.

A workbook-textbook, *Steps in Map Reading*, designed for upper-grade students has recently been published by Rand McNally, 405 Park Ave., New York 22. It is a most valuable guide on proper methods of teaching map-reading skills and techniques.

The Webster Costello Company (Chicago Heights, Illinois) are featuring matching globes and maps. The maps are as comparable as though peeled from a 75-inch globe. A brochure describing this program is free upon request.

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Book Reviews

Daniel Roselle

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS IN AMERICAN GOVERNMENT AND PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

By J. Wade Caruthers

In response to the request of readers of *Social Education*, the book department this month presents reviews of new or recently revised textbooks in American Government and Problems of American Democracy for secondary school students. The textbooks are reviewed by J. Wade Caruthers.

Dr. Caruthers has taught at the junior and senior high school levels, directed college classes in the methods of teaching social studies in the secondary schools, and conducted undergraduate and graduate courses in American studies. At the present time he is Professor of American History and Director of Graduate Studies at Southern Connecticut State College. We are extremely grateful to him for preparing the reviews published below.



The Challenge of Democracy, Fourth Edition.

By Theodore P. Blaich and Joseph C. Baumgartner. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960. 626 p. \$5.96.

The authors of this book, both experienced classroom teachers, have written a text that is appropriately named. It does present, in clear-cut style, the basic challenge facing democracy. As in the older editions, the purpose of the book is to present the basic problems of democracy in the garb of new issues and new material from current society.

The material has been well-selected and approved by a group of experts listed in the very complete section on "Acknowledgments." The book contains nine units with two to three chapters each. The first unit deals with the problems of the young adult, and expands in scope to the family, the community, and such national problems as conservation, the functioning of government, civil rights, and international commitments. A very strong feature of the text is the beginning and end of each chapter. Each

chapter opens with a statement entitled "The Main Issue." These are usually clear-cut, strongly worded statements of the problems around which the material of the chapter is organized. At the end of each chapter are stimulating questions for further thought and study, and very useful reading lists of current books, pamphlets, and magazines.

It seems to this reviewer that the first chapter, entitled "Your Democratic Heritage," stresses the differences between Russia and the United States in black and white contrast, and some of the pictures and illustrations of life in Russia convey a very unfavorable impression of that country. It would seem that this chapter would add nothing constructive; instead, it might help kindle cold war feelings.

There is very little continuity between chapters one and two. Chapter two, entitled "Your Immediate Future," gives a very full report of the aims of education and the vocational and college orientation for the prospective high school graduate. More might have been said about the advantages of the State College offerings.

"Growing Into Maturity" contains sound psychological information and presents a well-written discussion of adolescent problems based on the latest research.

The next section, "Considering Marriage Seriously," presents vital questions facing the eighteen-year-old. It is accompanied by instructive charts and pictures. More might have been said about the problem of dating.

Problems facing the young family are dealt with in Unit Three. The question of divorce, the development of a democratic home, and the manner of spending of the family income form the core of the content. One chapter meets squarely such consumer problems as installment buying and subliminal advertising. An excellent graph illustrates different types of loans and interest rates. The section "For Further Reading" should have listed the names of consumer-resource magazines.

"Building Security for the Future" presents practical information on the income tax, stock market investment, the plight of the middle in-

come group, and the social services of government. All of this is accompanied by up-to-date information presented in graphs and charts.

In the area of community problems, consideration is given to matters involving suburban growth, urban renewal, and urban blight. The chapter on housing includes historical material on the development of cities, and information on what private and governmental services are doing to provide adequate housing.

An excellent chapter, "Education in an Age of Crisis," presents the major problems facing public education: academic freedom; the debate over content; and the issues raised by recent studies, such as the Conant report on the American high school.

The unit on "Economic Freedom and Opportunity for All" lays down the basis for free enterprise in America, faces the problem of monopoly, and reviews the position of big labor in the society of big business and big government. The only reservation that this reviewer has on this section is the statement in chapter 11 which implies that free enterprise and democracy are necessary for one another. This generalization might be considered by some teachers a popular myth which might need modification through the teaching process.

The problem of conservation of natural resources, including the state of farm income and the farm family, is covered in three well-written chapters. The advantages and disadvantages of public power and the various approaches to the farm surplus problems are well-presented. There is a section on air pollution which is not present in earlier editions of the book.

"Keeping Our Government Democratic" is made up of four chapters. This section stresses government in action and the constant need for governmental efforts to keep government democratic. There are no trite charts of "How a Bill Becomes a Law"; instead, lively material is presented describing the action of pressure groups and the formation of public opinion.

The problem of protecting human lives and property rights is covered in a very well-written unit consisting of three chapters on "Safe-guarding our Civil Rights." The authors have faced up to the question of balances between security and freedom, and to the problem of safe-guarding civil rights and at the same time protecting the country against subversives. This section is very constructive and should go a long way toward clearing up the fuzzy thinking of people on both extremes of this question. Much new anthropo-

logical material is used in the discussion of minority groups and their place in democracy.

The chapter on crime contains comprehensive coverage of such factors as bad home influence, bad community environment, and the like. Yet more might have been said about the possible relationship between juvenile crime and the atmosphere created by a competitive cold war in the international situation.

The last unit, "The Problems of Peace and War," is to this reviewer the weakest of all. Although it gives a very factual and accurate account of the efforts of American foreign policy since World War II, nowhere are the aims and reactions of Russia in relation to the United States made clear.

This book is recommended for a twelfth-grade problems class. The strengths are many, and the weaknesses that do exist would not interfere with good teaching and learning.



Youth Faces American Citizenship. Second Edition. By Leo J. Alilunas and Woodrow J. Sayre. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1960. 592 p. \$5.00.

The authors of this book have written a very well organized and readable twelfth-grade social studies text. Both Leo J. Alilunas and J. Woodrow Sayre have had substantial secondary school experience, and the effectiveness of the text reflects this. In their preface they recognize the fact that high school seniors have a great deal of knowledge from books, mass media, and experience. The purpose of their book is to help youth organize their past knowledge and new knowledge, and to point out constructive ways of using it. Citizenship development is the main objective. This is to be achieved by helping students to be better informed, to be thoughtful, and to be active in civic affairs.

No one could argue with the style and format. The writing is lucid and the vocabulary suitable, and the text could be understood with the proper amount of intellectual effort by the average student. Ten units with twenty-five chapters make up the basic organization. The subject matter covers orientation to citizenship, life adjustment problems, economic and consumer problems, group relations and sociological information, concepts of town and community, world relations, and national problems. There seems to be no serious gap in the subject matter.

The text is well-supplied with relevant photographs, mildly satirical and humorous cartoons,

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and charts in appropriate places. Each chapter ends with a brief and well-selected bibliography entitled "For more information." The list includes fiction, nonfiction, pamphlets, films, and filmstrips. Some very interesting books are included in the bibliographies. Good examples of this appear on page 18, where the authors have listed: Booth Tarkington's *The Gentleman from Indiana* and Mark Twain's *The Man That Corrupted Hadleyburg and Other Stories and Essays*. A short useful vocabulary list is included, followed by questions and suggestions for projects.

Teaching aids provide for different levels of adjustment, some on a very high level. For example, on page 41, following the chapter on "Citizens need free and responsible communication," the students are encouraged to "Conduct a class discussion which is based upon the reading of the chapters on the newspaper, radio, and movies in Harry A. Overstreet's book *The Mature Mind*. On what points do you agree with Mr. Overstreet? On what points do you disagree? State your reasons."

Weaknesses of the book are probably those of public education itself, and a result of the necessity for meeting a mass market. However, it is proper to point out that in spite of the very good balance and coverage, some of the sections on American institutions and problems are a bit circumspect and, in the opinion of this reviewer, too cautious.

In the section on housing, it would have seemed useful for twelfth graders to know something of Keas's *Crack in the Picture Window*, and some of the pitfalls and frustrations of home ownership as related to quality, size of house, and interest rates. Also some of the shortcomings of government in the field of housing might have been emphasized more.

In chapter seven, "The problems of the consumer," there is a statement which encourages people to "keep your credit rating high." Sophisticated people might have some reservation about this advice.

In the chapter, "The American business enterprise system," it is mildly suggested that large corporations tend to monopolize business, but David Lawrence is quoted on the last page of the chapter eulogizing this system in an editorial entitled "The Moral Strength of Capitalism." On the same page, however, is listed Sinclair Lewis' *Babbitt* and William D. Howells' *The Rise of Silas Lapham*. This does give considerable leeway for the alert teacher and intelligent student to take a critical look at our system.

Unions are discussed in a favorable light, with a cartoon criticizing the Taft-Hartley Act and no mention of the problem of democratic selection of union leaders.

The most forthright treatment of American problems is included in the chapter on education, which stresses the low pay for teachers and the doctrinal debates which have taken place within the field during the last ten years. The well-accepted weaknesses and vices of society are also given emphasis. The problem of alcoholism, drug addiction, and juvenile delinquency and crime are examples of this.

In the treatment of government, mild electoral revision is suggested, but very little emphasis is given to the problems of imbalance of power between the city and the country. In this reviewer's opinion, it is also felt that not enough emphasis is given to the modern role of the President in what is still called "the checks and balance system." "The chief duties of the President are to execute the laws of Congress and to control foreign affairs." This seems to be a very weak statement of the situation as it now exists in the government.

In spite of these weaknesses, this book can be recommended with enthusiasm because it seems to achieve its purpose of presenting real information, increasing thought, and suggesting possible solutions to problems. Good teachers and alert students will find this book useful.

▼

Government For Americans. By Rollin Bennett Posey and Albert George Huegli. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1959. 511 p. \$5.20.

It is not an easy task to present material on government in an attractive way, and at the same time give relevant and urgent information; but the authors of *Government for Americans* have written a high quality textbook for use in eleventh- and twelfth-grade Government or Problems courses.

The tone of the book is set in the introduction in which the authors remind the students that "Any nation that rests on its past accomplishments will be outstripped by other nations. The Red Queen, speaking to Alice in *Through the Looking-Glass*, might have had this in mind when she said, 'Now, here, you see, it takes all the running you can do, to keep in the same place.' Americans are lucky to belong to the wealthiest nation in the world, but they cannot maintain that position by resting on the mighty

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accomplishments of their ancestors. The elements that made America great are needed now."

The authors are scholars in political science, and the contents of the book reflects their scholarship. Although the language is suitable to eleventh- and twelfth-grade levels, the content is not compromised or over-simplified. The strength of the book is in its use of new materials and treatment of weaknesses and short-comings in the governmental system.

The book is organized into seven units of four to five chapters. The general coverage starts with the nation, expanding into the relationships of the nation to the world community, and coming back in the last three units, to state, county, and city government. The last unit deals with the responsibility of the individual citizen in making the system of government work. This is followed by a chapter on government in action, which is an excellent discussion of the role of government in controlling business, labor, public finance, and in providing for the general welfare.

The unit on the "United States among the Nations" covers our treaty organizations and our relationship with the United Nations Organization. New material is introduced concerning

atomic energy and the recent changes in the Defense Department and the National Space Administration.

An excellent chapter also is included on comparative government, contrasting American, Russian, and other governmental forms. Strengths and weaknesses of state governments are stressed, and there are discussions of judicial organs, executive departments, and legislatures. Suggestions for improvements include strengthening the governor's power, reducing the size of the legislatures, and improving the balance between rural and urban electrical districts.

There is an up-to-date discussion of courts, the defects of the electoral system, and the possibility of minority presidents. The role of the President as a party leader and guide to Congress is given a prominent place in the chapter on the Executive.

Unit six, "Government close to Home," deals with town and city governments. It contains an interesting section on how the new metropolitan areas might be more effectively administered.

At the end of each chapter is listed suggested activities and books for further reading. A sample would include such volumes as Max Lerner's

America as a Civilization and Carl Swisher's *American Constitutional Government*. These are college-level books, but other readings listed are appropriate to a lower level. The book is well supplied with photographs, and unusually good charts and diagrams.

An appeal to the individual citizen is made in unit seven through a description of the electoral process and the operation of political parties. The authors are aware of the fact that it is not the mechanics of government that determine the quality of democracy, but the quality of the citizen. On this theme, the book ends on a high note of idealism with a quotation from Judge Learned Hand: "I often wonder whether we do not rest our hopes too much upon constitutions, upon laws and upon courts. These are false hopes; believe me, these are false hopes. Liberty lies in the hearts of men and women; when it dies there, no constitution, no law, no court can save it."

Our Living Government. By John H. Haefner and Harold R. Bruce and Robert K. Carr. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960. 679 p. \$4.96.

Our Living Government, written by a team of authors who combine scholarship and educational experience, is a very fine textbook for an eleventh- or twelfth-grade course in American government. The book is well organized into ten units, and it is well balanced between the mechanics of government and the organic workings of government. Much stress is placed on current social problems.

The book opens with two vigorous chapters on the necessity for government and the basis for a democracy. The basic strengths and weaknesses of democracy are given a prominent place, and fundamental questions are raised concerning the need for government to be flexible and dynamic.

The unit on "Democracy in Action" includes discussion of the policies and actions of pressure groups and the molding of public opinion, the formation of political parties, and the mechanics of organizations. One weakness in the chapter on political parties is the absence of a forthright discussion about party affiliations and the differences in personalities of our major parties. Also more might have been said about the effect of television on the formation of public opinion, and about the strengths and weaknesses of the political use of mass media.

One notable feature of the book is the way the authors combine the discussion of govern-

mental structure with governmental problems. For example, the text is excellent in bringing out the interplay between the executive department and Congress and the problem that often appears at the national level when there is a stalemate between these two branches of government. There is also an excellent chapter on federal relationships which reiterates and discusses many operational functions of government very often misunderstood by even the informed citizen.

It seems to this reviewer that a better balance might have been established between the sections on labor and business in the chapter on the administration of justice. Labor rackets and narcotic cases are mentioned, but nothing is said of conflict-of-interest cases in business and cases of monopoly control involving consent decrees.

The chapters on state and local governments are excellent. From a reading of these sections, a student would have a good working knowledge of the services of the state, the county, and the city governments. New administrative urban units are mentioned, although more might have been said about the problem of urban renewal.

As in most good government texts, this one includes a chapter on the United Nations Organization. However, like most textbooks, this section is not too clear on the U.N.'s relationship to the American State Department. The text closes with a stirring epilogue entitled "The Character of Our United States Government," followed by an appendix with some very usable organization and function charts of administrative departments of government.

The book is attractive and well supplied with up-to-date cartoons, pictures, charts, and graphs. The cartoons stress urgent national problems (such as the cartoon showing the imbalance between rural and urban voting power); and recent charts compare state and federal revenue collections. Each chapter begins with a list of concepts and ends with a summary, vocabulary list, activities, and a list of references for further reading. These references are well chosen for readers of varying ability. Some of the outside readings are of college level.

This book is highly recommended for the teacher who would wish to make a course in American government alive and interesting.

Our American Government. By Stanley E. Diamond and Elmer F. Pflieger. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1960. 608 p. \$5.00.

The authors of *Our American Government*, two men of long experience in the public schools,

choose to motivate the discussions of the basic aims of democracy by relating the story of a young American soldier in Germany who was not able to convey to young Germans what the American system was all about. Through this anecdote, they pose the question "What are the things for which our country stands?" By this effective device, they open up the unit on the foundation of American government. It stresses the roots of democratic liberty, the basis of the American Constitution, public opinion formation, the mechanics of elections, and the functions of both parties.

The following units deal with the national government, state government, local government, and most related problems. A unit on taxation and finance follows. This precedes a section on the United States as a world leader, closing with discussion of the government and the life of the people.

This is an attractive book with good pictures, charts, and pertinent graphs. The teaching aids are realistic and usable. Each chapter has a list of parallel high school texts and a small list of specialized books and pamphlets related to the specific chapter. At appropriate places in the text, there are interesting vignettes: for example, a day in the life of a Congressman. These little descriptions relieve the factual information, and add some motivating interest.

No one could adversely criticize the organization or style. It seems to this reviewer, however, that some of the marginal art work is a bit sloppy and detracts from the general appearance of some of the pages. Also the list of parallel high school texts is the same selection of books which appears time and again at the close of many chapters. It would seem that the authors might have included more suggestions for films, filmstrips, pamphlets, and special works dealing with governmental and social problems.

The reading level is suitable for the average and below-average high school student; although the level seems to rise part of the way through the book. The textual material reflects the teaching experience of the authors. They recognize the fact that senior high school students know a great deal, but perhaps need some guide in organizing their knowledge.

The authors have done a very good job in stressing the problems of majority rule and minority rights. After reading the section on the foundations of our government, students would probably be familiar with the situation that faced the young soldier in Germany. At the same

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time, one notices the didactic and patriotic over-tone in the way the American system is presented as being superior to all other systems. The impression gained is that no other system would work. Although most of us would agree with this in general, it would seem realistic in the present world atmosphere to compare our system with the Russian system, which also seems to work. In fact, it might be well to point out to young high school students that the Russian system may work, though maybe for the wrong reasons, in some ways better than ours.

The chapter on the American Constitution is an excellent section for slower learners or students with a limited reading facility. Public opinion and the channels for forming it are dealt with in an unbiased fashion. There is slight mention of the fact that views may be slanted, but from this cautious approach students might be left in some confusion as to who slants what and for what reason. More factual information and concrete examples are needed under this topic to give the reader more guide lines for critical thinking.

Pages 90-91 show the Democratic and Republican platforms for 1956. In reading the statements under various topics, one is at a loss to see any difference at all between the two major parties. On the following page is an excellent historical time line showing the genealogy of the two major parties.

Brief summaries describing the administrative departments of government are clear enough for the purposes and operation of this phase of government, but there does not seem to be enough material on problems and issues facing the Cabinet officials. The same thing might be said of the chapter on independent agencies of government. The chapters on Congress and the federal courts are, in this reviewer's opinion, the best sections in the book. State and local governments are dealt with in a comprehensive way, and there is good material on new interstate instruments of government.

Major chapters deal with the State Department and international relations, supported by a very interesting chapter on territories and the status of self-government in these areas. The United Nations is given a prominent place but, as in other government books, nowhere is there a clear-cut statement pointing out the relation between the U.N. and the State Department. The last two sections deal with welfare functions and control responsibility of government. These

sections compare well with sections in other government texts. However, this weakness is noted: there is no mention of the full employment act of 1947 nor the responsibility of government in anti-depression actions.

It can be said in summary that this book should achieve in a commendable way its purpose of stimulating interest in government and providing essential information about the operation of government. Where it falls down slightly is in attempting to achieve the purpose of promoting critical thinking about governmental problems. This book can be recommended with confidence for teachers looking for specific chapters, interesting charts, diagrams, and reading lists for their average students.

Magruder's American Government. By William A. McClenaghan. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. 756 p. \$5.20.

Magruder's American Government has been a landmark in our public schools for at least a generation. It has withstood the onslaught of attacks from patriotic groups and self-appointed critics of the public schools. William McClenaghan's revision of 1960 is in keeping with the fine tradition of this text and should keep this book in the forefront for many more years.

Magruder's American Government devotes more material to facts concerning the organization and workings of government and less to contemporary American problems. In this sense, it is a more traditional American government text than others reviewed in this section. This reviewer prefers the Magruder book to others because it does give more specific information about government, leaving it to the teacher to supply material about contemporary society.

There is a short section of 80 pages entitled "The Betterment of Society." The six chapters making up this section discuss public education, government service as a career, the duties of citizens, public finance, and the United States and the United Nations. This section is a bit vague, as are other government books reviewed, on the relation between our government and the United Nations. Nothing is said of the full employment act of 1947, and the so-called cushions under the economy built into our system to prevent depressions. Urban renewal and regional development are scarcely mentioned. These things are pointed out not as weaknesses of the book as much as areas for making comparisons with other government texts.

Eight units deal with the organizing function of government at all levels. Unit one concentrates on the development of political theory and ideals of democracy and the operations of a federal system. The section on legislative powers is a straightforward exposition of the powers and the problems of Congress. The unit on the executive department gives equal space to the cabinet positions and the main problems facing each departmental head.

Under the discussion of the judiciary and civil rights, our basic system of laws and liberties are explained. However, this is done with no mention of recent security cases concerning the balance between security and freedom.

The mechanics of political parties, the policies of voting, the nominations for office, the conducting of elections are very well described in a unit on political rights and practices. As in other government texts, however, nothing of real importance is said about the composition and differences of the political parties.

The units on the state and local government are very well written. Stress is placed on the breakdown of mechanics and obsolete features of this level of government.

Magruder's American Government is an attractive book, and well supplied with the necessary teaching aids. There are also some very interesting books listed under the selected bibliography at the end of each chapter. One minor defect in the format might be the frequency of subheads and enumerated paragraphs, which at times seem to clutter the reading material. All in all, a very fine government course could be built around the use of this textbook.

Civics for Young Americans. By Rollin Bennett Posey. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960. 456 p. \$3.48.

Civics for Young Americans is a unique type of text written under a traditional title. The introductory section reads like a transcription of a cooperative planning session between teacher and class in which the objectives and content for the year are established. The chapters, each one a case study illustrating the principles of local, state, and national government, are based on conversations and discussions of real-life situations. For example, to bring out the principle of government taxation, and the control of business, the local grocer visits a class and tells it of his problems and his relations with state and national government. The questions and answers

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which follow bring out the basic information concerning the relationship of government to the supervising of business activity. The policeman also drops into the Civics class and discusses automobile safety, juvenile delinquency, and proper behavior.

This reviewer must admit that this approach produced mixed feelings in him. The conversations seem chatty and light, yet they do bring out realistic situations, emphasizing government in action on a level that perhaps would be quite interesting and even exciting to seventh and eighth graders. Each teacher would have to try out this book on his own class to determine his own degree of satisfaction.

The graphs and pictures are good. A usable vocabulary is listed at the end of each chapter. The cartoons are didactic and the charts are clear and dramatic. A unique feature of the appendix is a guide to parliamentary procedure.

Junior high school people may find this book appealing. On the other hand, some might become bored with the conversational style. At any rate, the book offers a fresh and interesting approach, which should not be overlooked by the alert junior high school social studies teacher.

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Building Our Life Together. Seventh Edition. By Joseph Irwin Arnold, Dorothy J. Banks, and William Maurice Smith. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960. 384 p. \$4.36.

Building Our Life Together is intended for grade nine or ten. The book gives a comprehensive coverage of social institutions starting with the family, going into local, state, and national government, and then into world affairs. The last section stresses vocational guidance for youth and social services of the government.

Seven units make up the book, with three to five chapters in each unit. The chapters are brief with simplified summaries of topics. This reviewer has the impression that the conversational beginnings of the chapters might amuse or insult a ninth or tenth grader. The illustrations are interesting, the graphs and charts are useful, and the collateral reading is well-selected.

There are no serious gaps in the subject matter, and social problems are mentioned in a very cautious way. This book will perhaps be useful as an outside reference in a ninth or tenth grade social studies class, or perhaps for the better readers in the seventh or eighth grades. Teachers will find the volume useful for the graphs, charts, outside readings, and visual aids. The content itself is not too challenging.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

After reviewing eight social science textbooks written for secondary schools, it is hoped that the reviewer may be allowed a few personal comments by way of an epilogue. If social problems are to be an integral part of textbooks, and if critical thinking is to be a prime objective of social studies instruction, we should in our textbooks be describing such matters as the nature of atomic war and the futility of an arms race. We should face squarely the controversial atomic arms testing and fall-out issue. We should remind our students that the federal government has a real responsibility for heading off incipient depressions by using the so-called "cushions-under-the-economy" instruments. We should enable our students to come through a course in American government or American problems with the knowledge that political parties differ in their philosophical approach to social services and are composed of different socio-economic interests.

In a word, this reviewer feels that our texts, written to be unbiased, often avoid the real questions for critical thinking. In an attempt to produce books that are balanced, authors often turn out books that are, on crucial topics, vapid and meaningless.

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